

2019

Classroom Teachers' Views of Student Discipline and Justice: An Expert Judgment Study Using Q Technique

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Classroom Teachers' Views of Student Discipline and Justice:

An Expert Judgment Study Using *Q* Technique

by

Brendon Charles Mitchell

A Dissertation Submitted in Partial Fulfillment
of the Requirements for the Degree of

Doctor of Education

Presented to The Faculty of the
Doctoral Program in Interdisciplinary Educational Studies
College of Education, Information, and Technology

March 2019

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Long Island University
LIU Post Campus

College of Education, Information, and Technology
DOCTOR OF EDUCATION IN INTERDISCIPLINARY
EDUCATIONAL STUDIES

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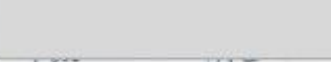
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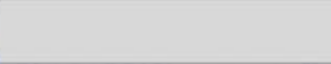
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DEDICATION

Dedicated to Aimee, Damiana and Declan...their love, support, and patience are the co-authors of this work.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

There is no way to properly acknowledge the unending support and commitment that Aimee has provided throughout this process. She is my champion and without her I would not have arrived at the finish line.

This dissertation would not have been possible without the expertise and encouragement of Dr. Red Owl. There are no words that can appropriately express my gratitude for the countless hours in the classroom or on the computer and the support and individualized instruction that he provided. He is a master teacher and I am lucky to call him both a mentor and a friend.

I would also like to thank my committee for their support and guidance in this dissertation process. Dr. Paula Lester has the innate ability to not only ask the right questions, but also to guide her students towards finding the solutions to those questions. Dr. Rebecca Chowske provided me with my first teaching opportunity on Long Island and I am grateful that she has been such an integral part of this next step in my career.

I would like to thank the Oceanside School District, Dr. Phyllis Harrington, Ms. Diane Provvido, and Dr. Beth Ziropiannis for their unwavering belief in me throughout this process. Additionally, I would like to thank the teachers and staff at OHS Castleton. I am amazed by their patience and flexibility as we continue to build a true alternative education program.

Finally, I would like to thank all of my students from the past twenty years. Each has helped to make me a better educator and I am forever grateful.

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ABSTRACT

The perceptions that individual teachers have on issues of student discipline and justice are critical factors in the relationships that exist within the classroom. However, policy decisions on student discipline are often left to administrators and school boards without the consideration of teachers' insights on issues of behavior management. As a result, a disconnection exists between policy and practice, which affects the learning and culture of classrooms for both teachers and students. This study gives a voice to teachers as the frontline experts on student discipline and justice. *Q* Methodology, a research technique designed for the systematic study of subjectivity, was applied to reveal a set of distinct models of shared viewpoints held by classroom teachers. Data were collected using an anonymous, voluntary, online survey from 71 current, public school teachers in Grades 9-12 across New York State. The study found 3 shared viewpoints: (a) *Q* Model 1: *Student Discipline and Justice as a Humanistic, Individualized Experience Centered on the Teacher-Student Relationship and Separate From Academic Progress*, (b) *Q* Model 2: *Student Discipline and Justice as a Rules-Based System, Separate From Academic Progress, That Must be Consistent and Administered Without Regard to Individual Students or Relationships* and (c) *Q* Model 3: *Student Discipline and Justice as Connected to Academics and Humanistic, and Needing Change From the Traditional Model*. The study concludes that greater attention should be given to the views and role of teachers in student discipline. It recommends that more training be provided to address the internal and external conflicts teachers face in student discipline and justice. The study also concludes that a linguistic distinction should be made between “restorative justice” and “restorative practices” in the school setting.

Keywords: classroom management, exclusionary discipline, high school, New York, restorative justice, restorative practice, student discipline, zero tolerance

CHAPTER I

BACKGROUND AND CONTEXT

The origin of this dissertation stems from my earliest teaching experiences in both the Mission District of San Francisco and in Spanish Harlem. As an inexperienced teacher struggling with behavior management in those early days of my career, I frequently resorted to removing students from the classroom in an effort to maintain order and to assert my power and authority. Although I gained some brief solace from this practice, it was only fleeting and I often found myself experiencing the same difficulties on the following day. The management techniques that I attempted to use had only temporary effects, and the apparent culture of my classroom was based on a false illusion of power. Students who were removed frequently from the class were distancing themselves, both physically and mentally, from the classroom community. Their disengagement was palpable, and I had no plan for bringing them back and re-engaging them.

As my feelings toward exclusionary discipline were evolving, other educators, researchers, and policymakers across the United States were recognizing the problematic nature of zero-tolerance policies. The American Psychological Association's Zero-Tolerance Task Force found little evidence of usefulness of zero tolerance in the classroom (Skiba, Reynolds, Graham, Sheras, Conoley, & Garcia-Vazquez, 2006), while opinion pieces from the editorial board of the New York Times ("Zero tolerance," 2014) as well as the president of the American Federation of Teachers (Weingarten, 2015) recognized the problems with zero-tolerance. In early 2014, senior officials in the Obama Administration, including Attorney General Eric Holder and United States Secretary of Education Arne Duncan, urged educators to end what was viewed as the discriminatory practice of zero-tolerance (Hefling & Yost, 2014). Although there

was some general agreement about what was not working, schools were still left with very little idea of what could work in classroom discipline. Noticeably absent from much of the dialogue were the voices of the teachers who were in the classrooms every day.

When I compared my own classroom experience with that of the national discussion, I found that my evolving beliefs about discipline, power, and justice in the classroom had shifted and that I did not often identify with the discipline policies and approaches of the schools in which I worked. As my classroom practice developed, I found myself at odds with the practices of the greater school communities in which I taught. Today, having the benefit of several years of teaching experience and with the perspective of now serving as the principal of an alternative high school, I believe the pendulum of school discipline may be swinging toward restorative justice—but teachers' voice still remain largely outside the discussions of disciplinary policies and approaches to school discipline. Although I am now a school administrator, I do not believe that any approach to school discipline can succeed without the confidence and support of the teachers who interact with our students and have the most information and insights about them. It is critical that we seek to understand how teachers view discipline and justice in the classroom and larger school community.

Purpose of the Dissertation

The relationships that exist between teachers and students are critical factors in determining issues of discipline, power, and academic achievement in the classroom (Gablinske, 2014; Mokhele, 2006; Murray, Malti, Sulger, Ribeaud, & Eisner, 2016). However, policy decisions on discipline style, including the varying levels of offences and their subsequent consequences, are left to administrators and school boards often without consideration of the individual classroom teachers who are being affected. As a result, there exists a disconnection

between policy and practice, and this inconsistency impacts the learning and the culture of a classroom for both teachers and students.

This dissertation addresses the intersection of student discipline and concepts of justice from the perspective of teachers, who are expected to maintain these systems of management in the classroom. As background, it traces the path of restorative justice in the classroom and analyzes the pillars and principles of this system within the context of teachers' perceptions about discipline and justice in the classroom.

Chapter I briefly reviews the history of schools in the United States in order to identify the common themes that have emerged in school discipline and justice. In particular, it highlights the zero-tolerance policies of the past 30 years and the emergence of restorative justice in the classroom. Additionally, the foundations of restorative justice in schools, as well as much of the prescriptive literature on the subject, are reviewed in this chapter in order to establish the context for the study reported in this dissertation.

A Brief History of Discipline in Schools

To understand the background and provide the context for considering student discipline in schools, it is helpful first to explore a history of schooling in America from the early European settlers of the 1600s through the early 2000s. Despite more than 400 years of growth and development in schools, many of the contemporary concepts of student discipline had their origins in the earliest classrooms and the relationships and expectations that existed between teachers, students, parents, and the greater community.

Education in the Early Colonies

The earliest forms of education in the American colonies were deemed entirely to be the responsibility of parents and broader families. The decision to educate one's child was not a

matter for public discussion, and the teaching of basic life skills or trade or work skills were left to the discretion of the parents (Hiatt, 1994; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

The foundation of much of our present day educational system can be found from the early Puritan settlements. With a desire for establishing roots and with a more stable relationship with Native Americans in the region, the Puritan colonies were able to place a greater importance on education. For these early colonists, education was a means to create closer connections between God and society. Puritans believed that man was born evil and saw proper schooling as a way to overcome this deficit. Education worked to stabilize society based on this relationship with God (Dupper, 2010; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1994).

The Puritan colonies envisioned education as a holy triad between the parents, church, and school that would work simultaneously to prepare children for a life of serving God (Jeynes, 2007; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1994; Urban & Wagoner, Jr., 2009). The home was paramount in this effort and parents were expected to bring together the spiritual lessons from church and the educational lessons of the schools. The Puritan classroom played only a complementary role to the home and the church. With the goals of academic development and teaching students to read the Bible as soon as possible, schools focused on rote memorization and drill with the schoolmaster as the ultimate authoritarian. The relationship between home, school, and church was solidified with the presence of most teachers at church with the students from their classrooms (Jeynes, 2007).

As the Puritan colonies began to develop and grow, new legislative measures were passed to further strengthen the role of education as a means of moral development. As a result of this legislation, government played a stronger role in the educational development of children. In response to the belief that many parents were neglecting the training of their children, the

Massachusetts Compulsory Education Law of 1642 required that the head of every household teach all children in the home to read and to understand the principles of religion (Pulliam & Van Patten, 1994; Spring 2001). The Old Deluder Satan Act of 1647 established additional expectations for the education of children within the colony. With the assertion that Satan wanted children to be ignorant, this act required that each community of 50 or more households assign one person to teach all of the children in the community. Although this law made it clear that the primary responsibility for education still resided with the parents, it was intended to help families with their educational responsibilities and, consequently, families began to relinquish some of their educational responsibilities to the larger community (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1994).

Fear, humiliation, and shame had a central role in behavior management in these early Puritan classrooms (Dupper, 2007). Students were expected to listen closely to instruction, and corporal punishment was utilized frequently and liberally to maintain standards of order and discipline in school. With a belief that “the rod of correction is a rule of God necessary sometimes to be used upon the children” (Altenbaugh, 2003, p. 32) schoolmasters utilized the ferrule, a 3-foot long wooden stick, to beat any student who did not meet the behavioral expectations of the class (Altenbaugh, 2003; Dupper, 2007). Many Puritan schools even installed whipping posts by the entry way or utilized stocks to discipline children (Pulliam & Van Patten, 1994).

Post-Revolutionary War Period

The post-Revolutionary War period became a critical time in education as the fledgling nation sought to create a system that fostered an American perspective rather than one that would have been received in Europe (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Spring, 2001). As the desire

increased to no longer have American students receiving an overseas education, the national consciousness that formed after the Revolutionary War encouraged a new look at schools. Although early colonists valued education, it was not until this post-Revolutionary time that schools became a function of government (Spring, 2001). The call for improved education extended beyond those simply focused on the religious purposes; instead, leaders saw education as an opportunity for the United States to develop its own resources without the influence of the British and to maintain a civil and stable society (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1994; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

Although education was gaining attention from those outside of the religious perspective, the heart of American education was still centered on the Bible, moral education, and character development (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Pulliam & Patten, 1995). Noah Webster's *A Grammatical Institute of the English Language*, along with his updated version of the 1690's *New England Primer*, relied heavily on biblical verses not only to teach reading and writing but to develop young students into positive members of society. Knowledge was valued, but more valued was "wisdom" as defined by moral character and a healthy fear of God (Jeynes, 2007; Spring 2001).

The seeds for a national role in education and a reduction of parental involvement and control in education had been planted during the Revolutionary War. Thomas Jefferson's early vision for education called for all European male and female children to attend primary school for three years with the most promising students continuing on to further education (Altenbaugh, 2003; Hiatt, 1994; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). Both Jefferson and John Adams promoted state-supported, mandated public education. The Northwest Ordinance of 1787 further asserted the government's role in schools through a connection of education with that of good

government and the happiness of mankind (Jeynes, 2007; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1995). The suggestion of this ordinance was turned to law in 1789 with the Massachusetts Education Act that required all boys and girls go to school at public expense in all communities with at least 200 people (Jeynes, 2007).

Despite the vast success of Webster's readers and the call for a national identity on education, the control of schools still remained on the local level. This form of local control allowed for continued parental influence on teachers and schools even while there may have been some movement towards more state or federal control. Teachers often visited the homes of their students and maintained partnerships, both in curricular and disciplinary decisions, with the parents.

Even with the increase in public interest and involvement in education, the school discipline methods of the post-Revolutionary classroom remained similar to those of the earlier Puritan classrooms. The high expectations called for by national leaders demanded strict obedience in the classroom as reflected in this verse from the *New England Primer* to be memorized by students:

I will fear God, and honour the KING.

I will honour my Father & Mother.

I will obey my Superiors.

I will Submit to my Elders (Spring, 2001).

If students did not maintain the behavioral expectations of the classroom, corporal punishment remained the standard practice for discipline in schools with the support and encouragement of parents (Altenbaugh, 2003).

There were a few prominent voices—including Noah Webster and Thomas Jefferson—who opposed corporal punishment. Webster believed in strict teaching, but he did not believe that harsh punishments were the answer to controlling unruly behavior (Pulliam & Van Patten, 1995). Jefferson questioned the use of corporal punishment in the classroom and, indeed, viewed it as potentially detrimental to the character of children. Jefferson urged relationship building similar to that between a father and son (Cabell, 1856). Despite these influential voices, corporal punishment continued to be the most prominent system of discipline in schools in post-Revolutionary War America.

Charity Schools

Although Charity Schools were established in the early Puritan colonies, the concept of these schools expanded after the Revolutionary War as a way to strengthen and develop the moral character of children. These schools were originally a form of private school that strived to keep children away from the criminal element by establishing strong relationships and connections between pupils and teachers. In many Charity School models, teachers were “adopted” by families and attended church with their students (Jeynes, 2007; Spring, 2001; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

By the 1800s, the nature of Charity Schools had changed substantially from the original approach of Puritans. Joseph Lancaster and his Lancaster-model of Charity Schools relied on efficiency to teach academic and moral education, emphasizing the overarching theme and expectation for schools to control the physical, emotional, and intellectual actions of every student (Altenbaugh, 2003). Lancaster’s belief was that these schools were needed to replace weak family structures that were deficient in moral training (Spring, 2001). Whereas the Puritan model of the Charity School had focused on small classes and close relationships, the Lancaster-

model featured classrooms of about 100 students with older students' serving as teachers' aides to assist with instruction. This view held that the large number of students in these factory-style classes modeled the importance of efficiency and structure. The classrooms maintained strict discipline with monitors frequently boxing the ears of misbehaving children or issuing merit tickets for instances of good behavior (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Spring, 2001).

Perhaps the greatest reason for the success of the Lancaster-modeled Charity Schools was their adoption by New York City Mayor DeWitt Clinton in 1810. Clinton feared that New York City's surge in population would result in increased poverty and believed that Charity Schools could address the problems attendant to poverty. By convincing both New York State and New York City that schools needed the support of the government, Clinton saw a way to prevent his city's youth from becoming attracted to crime and instead as a way to focus on the moral education and the Bible. The New York Free School Society and its acceptance of the Lancaster-model allowed for increased government funding for schools, while addressing the educational needs of the urban poor. The Lancaster-model, influenced by the legacy of Puritan charity schools, remained successful in New York for several years but ultimately became economically infeasible (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007).

Common School Movement

The transition from Charity Schools to Common Schools was due in large part to a generation of educational leaders who believed in a free system for all students that would be led and supported by the state (Altenbaugh, 2003; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1995). Common Schools were created with the ideal that all children would receive a common education based on a common culture with common values (Spring, 2001). The voice most often associated with the shift from private schools to publicly-supported Common Schools was that of Horace Mann. As

more states established roles similar to that of Mann's position as Secretary of Schools for Massachusetts in 1837, the national vision for public schools increased and was endorsed by several emerging education journals (Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

Horace Mann's common school movement was driven by the belief that education was the key to stability in the government, harmony among society, and offered a solution to urban poverty ("Horace Mann," n.d.; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). With an increased state role in schools, the expectation was that common schools would offer a fair opportunity for education to both rich and poor children. Additionally, common schools were thought to increase the impact of moral education, strengthen the quality of teaching, and further unite the country (Jeynes, 2007). It was believed that the moral education that could be offered in common schools would prevent children of poverty from turning to lives of crime (Tuckerman, 1831).

The rise of common schools was, however, opposed by a variety of key stakeholders in education and politics. Many religious leaders were concerned that this new model of education would impose views different from their own on the education of children (Altenbaugh, 2003; Brouillette, 1999). Similarly, some parents saw common schools as yet another step in taking away the family's authority in educational choices. These parents were also concerned that the increased presence of public schools meant that parents might not no longer have strong relationships with and personal knowledge about their children's teachers. The rise of common schools reflected a societal shift from approaching education from a family-centered approach to one that was more formal, standardized, and government-controlled (Altenbaugh, 2003). The political resistance to common schools was exacerbated by the belief by many politicians and others that a national approach to moral education would diminish the power of states and local communities. The Democrats of the South, in particular, were concerned that this national

movement in education would support the anti-slavery movement (Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner, Jr., 2009).

Student behavior was strictly managed in common schools, and the students were expected to give themselves up entirely to the discipline of the school or face the harsh consequences of the schoolmaster (Stowe, 1839). Despite these expectations, the student misbehavior was reported to be increasing in the classroom, with incidents ranging from “putting out” or locking teachers out of classrooms to the more extreme cases of assaults of teachers. Older students often served as protectors of younger students when they thought the punishment of a teacher was too excessive. It was not uncommon for wrestling matches between teachers and older students to determine who actually controlled the classroom (Altenbaugh, 2007).

Even with the frequent use of corporal punishment, student behavior in 19th century classrooms was often unruly and disruptive. Teachers frequently saw their role as “school keeping” rather than school teaching. In response to an increased belief in the demise of the moral consciousness of youth, the Massachusetts State Reform School opened in 1848. Emory Washburn, a prominent lawyer and the eventual governor of Massachusetts, declared at its opening that the school would be similar to a parent in its correction of a problem child through the strict use of punitive punishment (Washburn, 1848). Although Washburn asserted that the family was still the primary source of moral education, his address established the need for the state to take over when the family failed to succeed. Reform schools, despite the firm belief that they were constructed not to punish but to prepare youth to return to society, relied on strict punitive and corporal punishment to correct the issues of delinquent youth (Snedden, 2017). By 1885 schools in Boston were reported to average about 65 floggings a day and severity in a teacher was considered a virtue (Altenbaugh, 2007).

Although some parents complained about the harsh consequences for students who misbehaved in the classroom, there was a general sense of approval for corporal punishment as a means to assure the good character of the students. Parents were expected to simply trust that teachers would not do anything too excessive in maintaining discipline in their classrooms (Stowe, 1838).

In the earliest Puritan classrooms, teachers and schoolmasters had often been selected based solely on their moral character and standing in the community rather than on intellect or instructional pedagogy. The early 1800s, however, saw increased private and public forms of teacher training institutes, including the Troy Female Seminary in 1814, the Reverend Samuel Hall's school in Concord, Vermont, in 1823, and a similar institute in Hartford, Connecticut, in 1839.

Horace Mann's Annual Report in 1844 connected the need for improved training of teachers with that of his disdain for corporal punishment. Mann stressed the need for improved relationships and connections between teacher and student and suggested that as teachers became more competent corporal punishment would need to be used less and less (Mann, 1844; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). By 1856, teacher-training centers became state sanctioned and established on a more consistent basis (Altenbaugh, 2003; Spring, 2001). Teacher training still consisted mostly of the importance of moral education for youth and on increasing the presence of morality among these new teachers (Spring, 2001).

Civil War to World War I

Just as the Revolutionary War had changed views of education, the Civil War worked to demonstrate the need for education in the form of the common school. As leaders and citizens alike saw the destruction and devastation reflected in their fractured country, many turned to the

belief that education could unify the country. This provided even greater momentum for the common schools movement and also led to a surge in teacher training institutes after the Civil War.

As racial unrest increased among African Americans who had fought in the war and returned to discrimination, the country saw education and business as a way to return to normalcy (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). The curricular decisions of the 1892 Committee of Ten were further defined in the 1918 Cardinal Principles of Secondary Education to better establish the role of high school in the country. By that same year, thirty states had laws in place for school attendance through the age of 16 (Hiatt; 1994; Jeynes, 2007; Pulliam & Patten, 1994).

Classroom discipline still employed corporal punishment and the belief that this form of behavior management was effective for training students in obedience and self-control. In 1874, there was an increased call for retributive punishment in which students would be suspended from some of the privileges at school. This exclusionary discipline model was thought to increase a sense of honor in students through their removal from certain activities (A Statement of the Theory, 1874). Due to increased regulations on school attendance, enrollment increased between 1890 and 1918 at a high rate. This rise in students brought with it a shift in the responsibility for student discipline from classroom teachers to school principals ("Two centuries of school discipline," 2016).

The Great Depression through World War II

The impact of the Great Depression was slow to reach the American public school system, and educational leaders continued to push the efficient, business-like model of schools into the 1930s (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). Despite the financial difficulties and other struggles of the Great Depression, schools somehow remained relatively stable and academic

achievement increased. This period saw a rise in the public's general appreciation for the value of education as means to escape financial despair of social mobility.

Nevertheless, despite the growing support for public education, the economic realities of the Great Depression required frequent teachers layoffs, cuts to extra school programs, and the elimination of what was deemed non-essential academic programming. Educators and school leaders confronted this struggle with a heated debate on the nature of education and the role of schools in understanding society. With the backdrop of the Great Depression, the debate on child-centered progressive education and the role of teachers raged (Urban & Wagoner, 2009).

The American Federation of Teachers and the National Education Association were both formed in this time period with missions to bring a greater voice to teachers in both the curricular and financial management of schools. Scathing reports emerged on teaching conditions including teacher isolation and poor relationships among colleagues. The economic struggle of the country brought increased attention to the curricular choices of schools as a means to prepare students for college and society. The heated debate between progressives and essentialists again challenged the weakening of American education and its standards in comparison to other countries. Also during this time, elements of the New Deal increased the federal role in the education and both local governments and parents groups expressed frustration over this further loss of power (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

The prosperity of World War II and the subsequent period after the war brought even more change to education than the struggles of the Great Depression (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). As more women joined the workforce, equality among male and female teachers became a prominent issue, especially in the area of salary and compensation. This push for equality also extended to concerns about social justice for African American teachers and support for a single

pay scale for teachers. These efforts generally failed at the state and local levels, but the desegregation federally of the armed forces drew increased attention to the rights of minority teachers in the United States.

The passage of the GI Bill of 1944 was a monumental moment in the history of education. The government's financial support of those returning from war allowed for a reshaping of college as an opportunity to improve the lives of veterans. Although there were negative impacts of the bill, such as continued prejudice towards African American students and the exclusion of women from certain educational programs, the overall impact of the GI Bill was positive (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

Little changed in the approach to discipline during the struggle of the Great Depression and the boom of post-World War II. The continued connection between moral education and school reinforced the approach in schools of strict discipline enforced by harsh corporal punishment. The debate on progressive education and curriculum had little impact on views of power and discipline in the classroom.

Post-World War II and the Cold War Period

The relative calm and economic growth of post-World War II American society was dampened only by the "red scare" and the threat of communism in the United States. Whereas World War II had forced Americans to confront their own forms of institutionalized racism, the Cold War struck almost universal fears of nuclear destruction (Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

These fears were exacerbated by Russia's successful launch of Sputnik in 1957 and Sputnik II prior to any American success in space. Both the federal government and the American public saw Sputnik's success as evidence of the poor educational standards and

academic achievement of schools in the United States at that time. Not since the Northwest Ordinance of 1787 and the Morrill Acts of 1862 and 1890 had so much attention been paid to the federal role in education and the debate increased between states and federal responsibility (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

The passage of the National Defense Education Act (NDEA) in 1958 increased the support for federal funding for education across political party lines. In the hope to address the perceived decline of reading, writing, and mathematics among American students, the NDEA and subsequent school curricular reforms emphasized the importance of mathematics and science education in schools. The resultant changes to the curriculum were met with anxiety among parents as this shifting emphasis often left them unprepared and unable to participate in or support the education of their children (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

In the early years after World War II, the public also became increasingly concerned that students were misbehaving more frequently due to the influence of movies and music ("Two centuries of school discipline," 2016). Corporal punishment remained the primary solution to classroom misbehavior with slight increases in more exclusionary punishment, such as out-of-school suspensions, in response to the perception of this increase in poor student behavior.

***Brown v. Board of Education* and the Civil Rights Movement**

The United States began a new emphasis and examination of civil rights due in large part to what President Truman saw throughout World War II. The atrocities committed in Nazi Germany contrasted with the return to discrimination and segregation of African American soldiers was difficult to justify for many, including Truman (Jeynes, 2007).

The U.S. Supreme Court's 1954 ruling in *Brown v. Board of Education* finally established that racial segregation in schools was unconstitutional. In reversing the

constitutionally flawed “separate but equal” doctrine of *Plessy v. Ferguson* established in 1896, the Court found that separate educational facilities were inherently unequal. Despite some issues related to the timing of desegregation, it clearly established that maintaining segregated schools was unconstitutional (Altenbaugh, 2003; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009). Equally important to *Brown v. Board of Education* was the majority ruling in its companion case, *Bolling v. Sharpe* in 1954. This case further supported desegregation by defining the concept of liberty to include the right to public education for a child (Frydman & King, 2006).

Although the progress of desegregated schools promised increased equality for all in the education, it also brought with it other potential issues (Altenbaugh, 2003). The loss of neighborhood schools due to busing became a concern for both sides in the debates about how to implement desegregation. The elimination of African American schools not only meant the loss of many African American teachers but also created an issue among parents about the type of education that their children would receive. Many African American parents felt that desegregation further distanced them from the education of their children. Additionally, there were numerous instances of harsher punishments for African American students by teachers and administrators who did not believe in or personally accept school integration (Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

The Civil Rights Act of 1964 further brought attention to the issue of segregated schools with the ability to withhold federal funding to those schools that remained still segregated. In addition to the civil rights of African Americans, concerns for the education of other minority groups, such as women, Mexican Americans, and Native Americans, continued to rise throughout this period in American educational history (Altenbaugh, 2003; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

As the Civil Rights struggle continued into the 1960s, new voices of activism arose. Students participated in political demonstrations for civil rights and other political and social issues of the time. Both the short-term and long-term effects of this increased activism by students were felt in the curricular decisions of schools. Issues about the Vietnam War, civil rights, and women's rights became central focuses of demonstration and protest. Along with this protest came an increased feeling in the power of voice and the ability of parents and students to assume more control in the decisions that most impacted them (Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner, 2009). Although the origins of Parent-Teacher Associations began in 1897 and had spread rapidly throughout the 1950s, it was the Elementary and Secondary Education Act of 1965 that connected federal funding with mandated parental involvement in the form of advisory boards and committees (Hiatt, 1994).

The voices of teachers also increased during this period. Teachers' strikes in New York City, Chicago, Detroit and several small towns demonstrated the powerful social positions that were developing among educators and their demands for improved conditions in their ability to deliver quality education (Altenbaugh, 2003; Urban & Wagoner, 2009). Prominent among these was the New York City teachers' strike of 1968, which directly confronted the concepts of neighborhood schools, parental involvement, and decisions about teacher employment (Jeynes, 2007).

The court decisions of *Engel v. Vitale* (1962), *Murray v. Crulett* (1963), and the *School District of Abington v. Schempp* (1963) effectively removed prayer from public schools (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007). In addition to being met with great controversy and opposition at the time, some have associated the removal of prayer from schools, fairly or not, with a perceived decline of morality in America. The moral education of children had often been

seen as the cornerstone of classrooms in America. With the removal of the Bible from classrooms, many felt that schools also lost the ability to teach and develop morality. Jeynes (2007), for example, has offered the opinion that a sudden increase in immoral behavior began in 1963 when prayer was removed from schools.

The Elementary and Secondary Education Act (ESEA) of 1965 served to increase federal funding in education specifically geared toward disadvantaged poor children. Although this increase in federal funding, especially in the area of poverty-stricken children, was widely accepted by all political sides, the increase in federal funding greatly expanded power of the federal government over schools and education. This exacerbated the decline of the power of local governments and parents over schools and fostered increasing concerns about the perceived weakening of the very educational foundation of the country (Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009).

Throughout the 1960s and into the 1970s, the public criticism of education increased in the United States. This growing criticism reduced public support for tax increases to sustain and improve schools. Many parents were unhappy with what they saw as a lack of voice in the education of their children. These parents were emboldened to speak up against the flaws of the educational system by the numerous demonstrations and public protests of this period (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007).

The student discipline model of the 1950s and 1960s remained consistent with the earlier model of the teacher as the moral authority. Although corporal punishment remained a standard practice in many school buildings, out-of-school suspension and various forms of in-school suspension increased substantially during the 1970s (Adams, 2000).

Special Education and the 1970s

In addition to public criticism about academic achievement in the schools, the 1970s also brought a review for how schools welcomed and taught students with special needs. Prior to the 1850s, families had been left to handle the needs of special education within their own homes and students with special needs were not viewed as a school responsibility, but some private and state schools to support such students opened in the 1850s. An anti-special education platform subsequently arose in the 1870s, supported by beliefs about Darwinism, the concept of the survival of the fittest, and the eugenics movement. A variety of policies and writings unfairly linked disabilities with poor behavior and criminality, which led to the asylum movement of the late 19th century. This belief of isolation of students with disabilities continued into the 1960s (Jeynes, 2007).

Despite general acceptance of the isolation of special needs students, a number of parent groups arose in the 1940s and 1950s to challenge this view. The Parents Council for Retarded Children in Rhode Island and several parent groups formed to push for the education of students with disabilities demanded that schools allow students with disabilities to receive an education (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007). Throughout the 1960s, numerous attempts were made to bring the issues of the education of the students with disabilities into the national spotlight, but those efforts saw little success until the last quarter of the 20th century.

This began to change when the Education of All Handicapped Children Act was passed in 1975, followed by the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) in 1990. These acts required the free and appropriate education (FAPE) of students with disabilities and the education of all students in the least restricted environments, as well as the development of individualized education plans (IEPs). The development of IEPs between schools and parents

served the purpose of ensuring that students with disabilities would receive the quality and nature of education they were guaranteed by law (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007).

Similar to the racial desegregation, the integration of students with disabilities in to schools that had previously excluded them was met with varying responses from teachers and administrators—including views that directly affected approaches to discipline in the classroom. The perception of students with disabilities as behavioral problems continued to be held by many teachers and administrators, and teachers frequently ejected special education students from their classrooms claiming that they were disruptive (Altenbaugh, 2003).

Earlier the cases of *Bolling v. Sharpe* (1964), *Dixon v. Alabama State Board of Education* (1961), and *Tinker v. Des Moines Independent Community School District* (1969) had established the rights of students for due process. It was not until 1975, however, when *Goss v. Lopez* finally clarified students' procedural rights in suspension processes. In that case, the court ruled that public school attendance is not only a liberty but also a property right for students and that notice and hearings must be held in order to assure students' due process rights (Frydman & King, 2006). Although it was not focused specifically on the discipline of special education students, this ruling helped assure that students with disabilities would be granted due process before removal from school. Further amendments of IDEA in 1990 assured that these due process hearings would include a manifestation determination to assure that the behavior in question was not directly linked to the student's disability (Osterhout, 2000).

The Culture of Accountability and Fear of the 1980s and 1990s

The 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk* by the Commission of Excellence in Education renewed the national fear that the United States was falling behind in academic achievement. The report cited decreasing test scores, high levels of teacher turnover, and a disorganized

curriculum plan among the many issues that characterized the American classroom (Graham, 2013). This landmark report reinforced the continuing belief within the public and among politicians that the standards of American schools were too lax and that students were falling behind their counterparts from other nations. Extending the concerns about educational quality to business and the economy, *A Nation at Risk* also attributed the United States' decline in business and world markets because of this academic quality (Spring, 2001). Although critics of *A Nation at Risk* pointed to National Assessment of Education Progress (NAEP) results that indicated a slight increase in academic achievement, both the news media and the general public renewed their calls for school reform and improvement (Reaves, 2001).

In addition to the concerns about academic progress, the 1980s and early 1990s brought an increased fear about the rise of “deviant” youth (Dilulio, 1995). President Reagan cited a lack of teacher and administrative control contributing to this perceived problem and called for the return to “good old-fashioned discipline” rather than increased funding to solve this education dilemma (Reagan, 1984). Several school policymakers and teachers echoed Reagan in the belief that students were simply lazy and unmotivated due to the lack of power of teachers in maintaining school discipline. This perception of the problem of troubled children grew throughout the decade, culminating in what Dilulio (1995) termed “super-predators” in his assessment of the increasing number of remorseless, crime-prone youth due to the moral poverty that existed in the United States. In much the same way that the fear of academic decline had attracted federal involvement to education, the fear of youth violence brought about federal laws in an attempt to address these concerns about deviant youth.

As parents and the public feared that American students were falling behind and becoming more violent, the federal government continued to increase their influence on public

education. Many felt that a lax approach to education in the 1970s had hurt the United States in both academic achievement and the world market (Ravitch, 1990; Spring, 2001). With a central theme of reform and accountability, the 1980s and 1990s brought a series of changes in who would be in control of education and what would be taught (Ravitch, 1990). A summit of United States governors in 1989 resulted in a collective agreement that there must be more national voice in education if the country were to overcome the deficiencies described in *A Nation at Risk*. This summit not only became a key talking point of George H.W. Bush's State of the Union in 1990, but also the basis for much of President Clinton's educational platform (Klein, 2014).

The increased call of accountability extended into the early 2000s with the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2002. This act, overwhelmingly supported across political aisles, further connected the federal funding of schools to greater achievement on standardized tests (Klein, 2015). The increased pressure on teachers to assure that students were performing in the classroom resulted in more exclusionary discipline in the classroom. The temptation existed for teachers to completely remove students considered to be a distraction and instead focus on those students that would improve test scores (Allman & Slate, 2011, Scully, 2015). These exclusionary discipline policies, fueled by the need to assure higher test scores and accountability ratings, set the stage for more students than ever outside of the American classrooms.

Synthesis of Themes in the History of School Discipline

The approaches to school discipline in the United States have tended to reflect the goals of specific time periods. The religious backdrop of the early colonies required students to demonstrate strict obedience or face the cruel hand of moral authority. Times of war brought

increased standards and expectations of student behavior. As the power of protest and demonstration emerged, so to did the voices of teachers, students, and all stakeholders in the education of children. Consistent through all these time periods was the belief that the behavior of youth was never as good as it had previously been.

The question of the role that parents have in the formal education of children will always be present in any discussion of schools. The initial “holy triad” of home, church, and school that was envisioned by the Puritans has gradually been removed with more local, state, and federal involvement in education. Although parent groups still remain active and vocal, some point to the decline in moral education, and subsequently, the decline in the behavior of children, as a result of the lessening of parents’ voice and this shift from local control in schools.

Times of war have always put an increased spotlight on the quality of our educational system. In our earliest wars, a collective national pride and sense of unity created the need for Americans to feel assured that our educational system was teaching students from an American perspective with a strict attention to the perceived moral character upon which the country was built. In the mid to late 20th century, the Vietnam War and the Gulf Wars brought demonstration and protest, and the effects of those events found their way into the classroom through both parent and student voices. Whether with pride or with protest, war has brought attention to the classroom and to its students. Often this attention led to a belief that not only was the academic progress of students on the decline, but that adolescents were spiraling out of control with a lack of a moral education. Policies that resulted in a “return to the basics” often emerged in these time periods with one aspect of these movements being harsher exclusionary punishments to treat the delinquent student.

Throughout the history of school discipline, harsher responses to student behavior have had little to no impact on improving how students behave in the classrooms. Punitive punishments and exclusionary discipline, including those of the zero-tolerance policies of the 1990s, have frequently failed to produce the intended results. The 19th century, with some of the cruelest forms of corporal punishments in schools, had increased reports on the decline of student behavior and the rise of problematic behavior in the classroom. Much more recently, suspensions and expulsions have been found to have little or no impact on recidivism while actually harming overall school culture and the relationships between students and teachers.

Much of the dialogue on school discipline has remained consistent from the earliest Puritan one-room schoolhouses to today's classroom. Although students' rights have expanded based on changing philosophies of education and court decisions, much of our school discipline history is centered on students as subservient to the will of teachers and administrators. This relationship has centered on the power of teacher to punish and exclude, and that remains relatively unchanged.

Restorative justice has emerged as one widely discussed potential solution to the school discipline problem today. Although the impact of restorative justice in schools remains relatively unknown in empirical terms, many districts have begun to implement these practices as a means to keep students in school and address the issue of discipline with more focus on identifying cause and solution as opposed to just punishment. In the remainder of this chapter, I focus on the impact of the zero-tolerance policies of the 1990s and then present the background and context of restorative justice in schools.

The Impact of Zero-Tolerance Policies

Throughout the 1990s, several schools relied on harsh, zero-tolerance discipline policies as a means not only to establish consequences for misbehavior but also to prevent recidivism within the school building. Although these policies worked to remove more students from school than previously seen (Scully, 2015), the unintended outcomes have been heavily debated and scrutinized. Despite being rooted in the goal of school safety and having been supported originally by teacher organizations across the country, zero-tolerance policies have gradually emerged as problematic in terms of student development and equality, as well as harmful to the overall culture of a school. This section of Chapter I traces the history and impact of zero tolerance policies beginning with the establishment of the Gun Free Schools Act of 1994.

Gun Free Schools Act

The Gun Free Schools Act of 1994 served to link federal funding to school policies on behavior management and discipline. Perceptions of school violence and adolescent gangs coupled with the ongoing drug epidemic were all factors in Congress' action (Mallett, 2015). The act mandated that any state receiving federal funding established laws requiring educational agencies to have mandatory suspension periods for any student found in possession of a weapon. Although the wording of the Gun Free Schools Act did not utilize the term zero-tolerance, it established the expectation that schools would remove any student regardless of circumstances or intent.

The increased fear of juvenile offenders and the zero-tolerance policies of the Gun Free Schools Act came together to create systems of behavior management that were harsh and unforgiving to students. Although schools continued to be safe spaces for youth, they began to implement punitive policies of discipline more closely associated with the criminal justice system (Gonzalez, 2012). The Gun Free Schools Act of 1994 focused on firearm possession, but

many school districts extended these zero-tolerance policies to other areas of discipline, ranging from drugs and alcohol to fighting and insubordination (Skiba, 2014).

Zero-Tolerance Policies

Zero-tolerance policies are generally agreed to be either a regulation or philosophy that mandates predetermined or specific consequences for behaviors without consideration of context or circumstances (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; Rodriguez Ruiz, 2017). First implemented in 1983 by the U.S. Navy in response to disciplinary issues with crewmembers, zero-tolerance policies were soon established for a variety of behaviors such as pollution, trespassing, and homelessness (Skiba & Patterson, 1999). As the war on drugs battle of the 1980s raged on, many found comfort in the idea that these zero-tolerance policies would effectively remove any troublesome behavior from the street.

Although the specific language of the Gun Free Schools Act did not utilize the term zero-tolerance, school districts that wished to maintain federal funding needed to assure that any students with firearms would be immediately removed from the classroom for a period of at least one year. In addition to the Gun Free Schools Act, provisions in the No Child Left Behind Act (NCLB) of 2002 provided additional systems by which schools and teachers could remove students from the classroom. In its assessment of zero-tolerance and the increased use of suspensions and expulsions, the National Association of School Psychologists pointed to the connection between NCLB and its empowerment of teachers to remove disruptive students from the classroom (Allman & Slate, 2011, Scully, 2015).

School systems began to implement policies that removed the ability of administrators to examine infractions on a case-by-case level and instead followed strict guidelines of consequences based on the behavior. Although intended to assist teachers in classroom

management, zero-tolerance policies stripped teachers of the ability to consider context and, as a result, the ability to individualize discipline for students (DeMitchell & Hambacher, 2016). With the adoption of zero-tolerance, schools were no longer able to look at the two key factors of intent and knowledge of the wrongdoing, but instead were led to focus on only the infraction and the subsequent penalty.

Zero-tolerance quickly spread to other areas of school discipline and instead of being restricted to punishments related to weapons, school districts began to utilize the zero-tolerance umbrella to expel students for dress code violations, profanity, fighting, and drug and alcohol possession (Rodriguez Ruiz, 2017; Scully, 2015). Soon after the widespread implementation of zero-tolerance, stories of seemingly innocent indiscretions that were met with harsh, exclusionary punishments began circulating. Accounts such as a young girl's being expelled from school after her mother put a knife in her lunchbox for cutting up an apple or a boy's being expelled for talking on his cell phone to his mother who was on deployment in Iraq, zero-tolerance eliminated the ability to look at infractions on a case-by-case level (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008). As zero-tolerance does not require offenders to have knowledge of their wrongdoing or for the offenders to have intent to cause harm, schools leaders had essentially tied their hands in approaching school discipline (DeMitchell & Hambacher, 2016).

Not surprisingly, zero-tolerance led to more and more students being suspended and expelled from school with over 3 million suspensions and approximately 100,000 expulsions in six years after the Gun Free Schools Act was passed (Scully, 2015). With the increased number of suspensions, also came an increased number of students dropping out of school and entering the criminal justice system. In embracing zero-tolerance, schools had created a system that not

only resulted in more students being out of the classroom, but also one that was not seemingly doing anything to reduce recidivism in the classroom or make classrooms safer (DeMitchell & Hambacher, 2016; Gonzalez, 2012; Skiba, 2014). More students entered the judicial system due to the implementation of zero-tolerance policies with no indication that these policies were actually preventing misbehavior in school. Although school safety should be of paramount concern, the results of zero-tolerance seemed to suggest that it was both ineffective and damaging to students.

In addition to the punitive responses to student behavior, the school environment created by zero-tolerance also became an area of concern. As these policies became more commonplace in schools, there was also an increased use of school resource officers, security guards, police, and cameras (Mallett, 2015; Nelson & Lind, 2015). Many felt that these stressful environments inhibit the ability of students to learn and disconnected students from their own education (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; Castillo, 2014; Purkey & Novak, 1984).

The fallout of zero-tolerance policies continues today, but many stakeholders and scholars have recognized the consequences that are beginning to emerge. Survey data among schools have shown no change in both minor infractions and more serious behavior as a result of zero-tolerance (Skiba & Peterson, 1999). Additionally, the American Psychological Association (2008) reported that these policies were counter to the natural development stages of youth and resulted in consequences for not only the students involved, but also families and surrounding communities. Randi Weingarten, in her role as President of the American Federation of Teachers, has editorialized that educators have been wrong about zero-tolerance and that it is time to move on from this approach (Weingarten, 2015). Perhaps the most concerning result

from the zero-tolerance boom has been the evolution of the school-to-prison pipeline that many feel formed as a result of this merger between the school and legal system.

The School-to-Prison Pipeline

The issue of mass incarceration has been at the forefront of current United States debate. The lack of education of those incarcerated is one element of this problem as more than half of those incarcerated went to prison without having a high school diploma (Wilson, 2014). In forcing students out of the classroom, zero-tolerance was making it more difficult for those students who were often put out of the classrooms and schools to appreciate the value of an education and, as a result, fostered additional misbehavior and lower academic progress (Rodriguez Ruiz, 2017).

As more schools have utilized the police in approaching discipline, more students have been arrested. In addition to disenfranchising so many from the advantages of education, there has been a belief that these policies were creating a school-to-prison pipeline for those frequently involved in discipline infractions. As a result, more students struggling to maintain appropriate behavior have become likely to be involved with the courts than the traditional practices of the principal's office (Gonzalez, 2012; Mallett, 2015; Rodriguez Ruiz, 2017; Wilson, 2014).

School-based arrests continue to rise in the era of zero-tolerance policies. The lasting effects of an arrest can add an additional stigma that did not exist with the previous practice of suspension (Scully, 2015). When we begin to treat students as criminals, they may begin to act like criminals. Re-entry to schools becomes more difficult for these students due to the trauma that often results in either their repeated misbehavior or their leaving the school system (Gonzalez, 2012; Mallett, 2015; Scully, 2015).

The school-to-prison pipeline has caught the attention of many, both inside and outside of schools, with several educators and scholars declaring that it is now one of our most important human rights issues (Gonzalez, 2012). The data from zero-tolerance policies and the school-to-prison pipeline are concerning. The Advancement Project (2005) determined that the punitive discipline policies of schools had not only doubled the number of students suspended each year, but also had led to a tripling of the national prison population between 1987 and 2007. Instead of eliminating problematic behavior and reducing recidivism, the harsh policies were leading more and more students into the court system and risked making nonviolent offenders into violent criminals (Armour, 2012).

Race and Zero-Tolerance

The conversation about zero-tolerance and the school-to-prison pipeline must also include the issue of race and discipline. Although proponents of zero-tolerance policies suggest that this approach creates a system that is the equal for all, the evidence shows that students of color are more often the recipients for these consequences (DeMitchell & Hambacher, 2016; Epstein, 2014; Heitzeg, 2009; Skiba & Peterson, 1999). Instead of creating a system that supported equality, it appears that zero-tolerance policies have unfairly targeted students of color with the effect that black students were suspended more often than white students in every state in 2006-2007. The UCLA Civil Rights project found that black students had a 1 in 6 chance of being suspended versus that of a white student who would face only a 1 in 20 chance of suspension (Losen, Hodson, Keith, Morrison, Belway, 2015).

Although this evidence on suspension is troubling, the disparity in the rationale behind these suspensions is even more bothersome. In an analysis of discipline referrals, Skiba (2014) found that white students were more often referred for misbehavior classified as objective, such

as smoking and vandalism, whereas black students were referred more for subjective offenses, such as disrespect or loitering. Further, Castillo (2014), in an analysis of middle schools across the country, found that black students were given harsher punishments compared to white students when found in violation of the same or similar misbehavior.

It is not simply individual students who are affected by these policies, but whole schools as well. Payne and Welch (2010) determined that schools with a larger percentage of black students were more likely to use punitive discipline measures and implement zero-tolerance policies. In addition to zero-tolerance policies, it is these same schools that utilize more school resource officers and police presence on the school campus (Mallett, 2015; Nelson & Lind, 2015).

The Rise of Restorative Justice

Restorative justice and the concepts of restorative practices have emerged in schools as a response to the zero-tolerance policies of the 1990s and early 2000s. Whereas zero-tolerance policies are centered on the punitive consequences of misdeeds, proponents of restorative justice position it as anchored on relationships between offender, victim, and community. Restorative justice focuses on responsibility and utilizes relationships and accountability as the factors that contribute to recidivism and deterrence (McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead, Kane, & Weedon, 2008). In the remainder of this chapter, I present the background and context for restorative justice and introduce the principles of this approach.

The Pillars and Principles of Restorative Justice

Restorative justice has existed in civilizations for hundreds of years in several native cultures of both the South Pacific and the Americas. This form of justice focuses on accountability, repairing hurt, and allowing the offender re-entry back into the community

(Fronius, Persson, Guckenburg, Hurley, & Petrosino, 2016; Zehr, 2015). The more formalized construct of restorative justice has developed through its entry into western society and the criminal justice system. The 1974 Kitchener Experiment (also referred to as the Elmira Story) is considered a critical moment for the restorative practice movement in the formal legal system. In this case, two teenagers who caused over \$3,000 worth of damage were allowed to face their victims and work to understand their actions as opposed to more traditional punitive possibilities (Desmond, 2014; Peachey, 1989).

Howard Zehr, considered by many to be the pioneer of modern restorative justice (Lofton, 2010), established three pillars for the practice and understanding of restorative justice: (a) restorative justice focuses on the harm done to people and communities when a wrongdoing occurs, (b) wrongs or harms result in obligations, and (c) restorative justice promotes engagement or participation. In focusing on the harm, restorative justice shifts the focus from the action itself to the needs of the victim, the offender, and to the greater community. As opposed to the criminal justice focus on punishment, restorative justice creates an obligation for the offender to repair the harm and make things right. Finally, the practice of restorative justice seeks to create engagement, either directly or indirectly, among all stakeholders to facilitate what the search for balance and justice requires (Zehr, 2015).

In conjunction with these pillars, Zehr (2015) established three fundamental principles of restorative justice: (a) crime is fundamentally a violation of people and interpersonal relationships, (b) violations create obligations and liabilities, and (c) restorative justice seeks to heal and put right the wrongs. Through the establishment of both these pillars and principles, restorative justice shifts the focus from punishment through power and, instead, attempts to realign the balance of the existing relationships.

Although the Kitchener Experiment is seen as a major moment for restorative justice in the legal system, it was not until the early 1990s that a school in Australia employed the first documented use of this method when restorative justice in response to an assault that had occurred after a school dance (Gonzalez, 2012). Both interest and funding for restorative justice soon began to sprout around the globe with schools in Australia, New Zealand, the United Kingdom, Canada, and the United States attempting to use the restorative approach (Fronius et al., 2015).

Restorative justice in schools continues to be a work in progress as the various models and forms of restorative practices shift through the years. For some schools, the focus of restorative justice is simply a response to a behavioral incident. Other schools have worked to implement restorative justice as a culture shift within the school as a both a response to misbehavior and as a continuum of culture among the entire culture of the school (Gonzalez, 2012). This shift has allowed schools to approach restorative justice through a variety of different measures beyond the more formalized procedures of peer circles, offender-victim meetings, and mediation groups.

Although restorative practices have existed for years in other cultures, this research is focused on analyzing the more recent phenomenon of implementing the philosophies behind restorative justice to that of the classroom and the larger school community. The definition and framework of restorative justice vary among cultures, communities, and schools, but the general philosophy is that restorative measures work to replace the punitive and managerial responses to misbehavior in school with those that work to build and repair relationships (Vaandering, 2013). Whereas punitive discipline is “focused in the past, preoccupied with blame, and with deterrence linked to punishment,” restorative justice has a “focus on the past, present, and future, with an

emphasis on the resulting harm, and with deterrence linked to relationships and accountability” (McCluskey et al., 2008, p. 202). Restorative justice focuses on a seamless re-entry back to school and a movement away from the court and legal systems.

Community capacity. Another element of the restorative justice umbrella is that of the development of community capacity within the school building. In community capacity, restorative justice serves to be proactive in approaching discipline before the infractions occur. “School-based restorative justice practice is a whole-school approach focused on inclusion in the school community, rather than exclusion, to address issues of student discipline, student performance, school safety, student dropout, and the school-to-prison pipeline” (Gonzalez, 2012, p. 285). As Karp and Breslin (2001) suggest, community capacity provides an opportunity to respond to the problematic behavior of a student without framing it through criminal justice, focusing instead on creating and sustaining a safe learning environment. This community capacity, coupled with relational rehabilitation, links the behavior with a breakdown in social engagement and works to reintegrate through repairing the damaged relationships among those involved than punishing students (Karp & Breslin, 2001).

The Use and Misuse of Shame. The concept of shame has elements shared with both restorative justice and traditional forms of punitive punishment in schools. Throughout history, shame has been used to influence the acts of others through its impact on society’s structure and culture (Mongold & Edwards, 2014). In restorative justice, however, there is a line drawn between concepts of reintegrative shaming and stigmatic shaming with the former utilized as a bridge to re-entry back into the classroom community (Fronius et al., 2015). Both Braithwaite (2001) and Levad (2009) have asserted that reintegrative shaming is a key component of restorative practices as it reinforces the ideas of redemption and forgiveness for the offender.

Implementation of Restorative Justice

The empirical literature related to the transition to a restorative justice school is discussed in detail in Chapter II. It should be noted here, however, that this transition must be carefully considered and planned at the risk of losing its effectiveness or impacting the culture of the school (Mayworm, Sharkey, Hunnicut, & Schiedel, 2016). In not only identifying a school's long term commitment to a restorative justice initiative, but also in the response of the teachers within the building, school administrators have several potential areas of concern.

Morrison and Vaandering (2012) emphasized the need for schools to be transparent in approaching the paradigm shift that occurs in a restorative justice approach. Specifically, they pointed to the paradox of teachers who may believe in the concepts of restorative justice but who have the default setting of utilizing power to punish. Contradictions between teachers' beliefs and their practice are important to identify and consider. Morrison and Vaandering (2012) suggested that even when a teacher believes in the principles of restorative justice philosophically, it is still possible that the teacher will return to traditional disciplinary measures when confronted with instances of misbehavior. The firmly entrenched beliefs about and the dynamics of power in schools tend to prevent restorative justice from achieving its full potential or from being implemented completely. Schools should not ignore deeply rooted beliefs about power relationships held by their stakeholders or efforts to install restorative justice are destined to fail (Morrison & Vaandering, 2012; Vaandering, 2013).

Results of Restorative Justice

The limited empirical evidence on restorative justice in schools is reviewed and discussed in Chapter II. Although there are several prescriptive books and articles that address restorative justice in schools, these texts are mostly projections or personal views about what should or

could happen with restorative practices rather than clearly defined results. There are several texts that provide snapshots of schools that incorporated restorative justice into school practice with the voices of administrators, teachers, and students suggesting its value. Many of these schools have reported a decline in suspensions and improvements in school culture. Although encouraging and hopeful for restorative justice, there still remains a lack of research-based articles reporting this same success.

There are some promising results of restorative justice when applied to the criminal justice system. Chapter II addresses these results and identifies some parallels to schools, but cautions against the link between criminal justice and school discipline.

General Statement of the Problem Addressed in This Dissertation

The foundation of school discipline in the United States emerged from the earliest Puritan schools of the 1600s. Although most forms of corporal punishment have been eliminated from the classroom, fear, intimidation, and punitive punishments have remained as the backbone of behavior management. As schools have taken the lead role in the education of the child, there remain questions on both the proper way and for what reasons to discipline a child. It is critical, therefore, to understand teachers' perceptions of discipline, justice, and power in schools and their classrooms to determine how systems of school discipline should best be designed and implemented to assure effectiveness, consistency, and equality to all.

Key Terms and Concepts Used in This Dissertation

The following key terms are used throughout this dissertation, so it is important to define them as a foundation for the chapters that follow.

- Classroom management: The process by which teachers and schools create and maintain appropriate behavior of students in the classroom setting (Kratochwill, DeRoos, & Blair, 2018).
- Corporal punishment: A discipline method in which a supervising adult deliberately inflicts pain upon a child in response to a child's unacceptable behavior (American Academy of Child & Adolescent Psychiatry, 2014).
- Exclusionary discipline: Disciplinary action that includes the removal of a student from the educational setting.
- Peer mediation: A restorative technique in which two or more students involved in a dispute meet to resolve the issue with the assistance of a peer mediator.
- Restorative justice: An approach to a disciplinary incident that focuses on repairing the harm caused by the wrongdoing through a focus on the relationships between offender, victim, and the community.
- Restorative practice: An approach to the overall culture of a school that focuses on the interactions that exist among students, teachers, and administration as a way to develop relationships and understanding.
- School discipline: The system of rules, punishments, and behavioral strategies appropriate to the regulation of children and the maintenance of order in schools (Asan & Asan, 2013).
- Zero-tolerance policies: A regulation or philosophy that mandates predetermined or specific consequences for behaviors without consideration of context or circumstances (American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008).

Chapter Synthesis

There is no question that all schools should be safe schools for students, teachers, and staff. The issues of discipline and behavior management, however, continue to be a largely unresolved area of school policy and practice. For the majority of our history, schools in the United States have relied on methods of fear, intimidation, and punishment to control student behavior. Although teachers are those at the center of classroom discipline, there are no clear constructs or understandings on how individual teachers feel about discipline and justice in the classroom. The definition and purpose of discipline in the classroom, as well as the beliefs that teachers hold about justice in the classroom, remain areas that need further examination.

Zero-tolerance policies and traditional punitive methods of school discipline have come under scrutiny as both educators and scholars have put its long-term effects under examination and closer analysis. Restorative justice, considered by many to be a positive alternative to zero-tolerance, has yet to face that same scrutiny. The issues of both the implementation and the effectiveness of restorative justice in schools remain unclear and the majority of literature on the subject remains prescriptive with little quantitative analysis. Although recent dialogue has suggested the flaws of zero-tolerance, the question of teachers' perceptions on issues of discipline and justice may be the better starting point before implementing restorative justice as the answer to school discipline.

Chapter II reviews the empirical literature in order to understand the theories, methods, and measures that have been employed in discussing restorative justice and teachers' perceptions of pedagogy, power, and discipline. The third chapter describes the research questions that guided this dissertation and the multidimensional scaling methodology employed in this study. Chapter IV presents the results of the study, and the final chapter offers conclusions, implications, and recommendations for research, practice, and policy on discipline in schools.

CHAPTER II

LITERATURE REVIEW

The literature reviewed in this chapter focuses on the impact of restorative justice in schools when examined through the lens of school culture and community as well as the behavioral outcomes identified with this approach. In the first chapter, I discussed the roots of discipline in schools through a history of American public education, the existing principles and pillars of restorative justice, and the crossroads of justice and school discipline. This chapter transitions from that background, context, and theory to discuss the research evidence on varying views of student justice, the practice and effects of restorative justice in schools, and teachers' attitudes and beliefs on justice and discipline.

It is a fundamental premise of this research that student discipline cannot and should not be conjoined with criminal justice, but this discussion of restorative justice would be incomplete without giving at least brief attention to the conceptual and philosophical roots of restorative justice in the criminal justice system. I begin this chapter, therefore, with a brief discussion of the application of restorative justice in the criminal justice system and identify broad areas of potential similarity between that system and the case of restorative justice in schools.

Turning to the principal focus of this dissertation, student discipline in schools, I then devote the bulk of this chapter to a review of the literature on teachers' perceptions of student discipline and an assessment of restorative justice practices in schools. This review addresses both the implementation of restorative justice in schools and the effects of restorative justice on student behavior and discipline. The chapter concludes with a synthesis of the research literature on restorative justice in schools and an exploration of how any discipline system is connected to teachers' perceptions on justice and discipline.

Restorative Justice in the Criminal Justice System

Acknowledging and emphasizing the fundamental differences in purpose and nature that exist between public schools as educational institutions and institutions related to criminal justice, my review of restorative justice in the criminal justice literature revealed three major themes that may be of suggestive value: (a) the effects of restorative justice approaches on recidivism, (b) the effects of restorative justice on offenders, and (c) the effects of restorative justice on victim satisfaction. I discuss each of these themes from the criminal justice literature in turn below.

Effects of Restorative Justice Approaches on Recidivism

The first major theme addresses research on the effects of restorative justice approaches on recidivism rates in the criminal justice system. Numerous studies have concluded that restorative justice generally reduces recidivism (Bonta, Wallace-Capretta, Rooney, & Mcanoy, 2010; Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Elis, 2005; McGarrell, 2001; McGarrell & Hipple, 2007; Palk, Hayes, & Prenzler, 1998; Rodriquez, 2007; Sherman, Strang, Mayo-Wilson, Woods & Ariel, 2015; Strang, Sherman, Angel, Woods, Bennett, Newbury-Birch, & Inkpen, 2006). The Latimer, Dowden, and Muise (2005) meta-analysis identified small positive effects ($r = .07$, $SD = .13$) with a 95% confidence interval of .12 to .02 on recidivism when a restorative justice program was utilized. The meta-analysis conducted by Sherman et al. (2015) found that among the 1,880 offenders in all of the studies analyzed there were fewer repeat offenders among those in restorative justice programs ($SD = -0.155$, $p = .001$) than those in traditional systems.

The positive effects reported in the literature have been found to differ, however, for specific groups or subgroups. For example, Rodriquez (2007) and Strang et al. (2006) found

differential effects for such groups as female offenders and first-time offenders, both of which tended to experience better outcomes than offenders in general.

As Strang et al. (2006) observed, the types of crime and the types of people who commit them vary, and this variation in the types of people who commit specific crimes can create outlier cases where restorative justice has been found to increase rather than decrease recidivism. Elis (2005) also observed a reduction in the recidivism rates of female offenders, but she questioned the potential influence of gender bias as a factor in creating this distinction and suggested that gender-specific programming may need to be considered.

Other criminal justice researchers have raised issues related to the research designs and methodological choices in research on the effects of restorative justice on recidivism in criminal justice. Because of the voluntary nature of participation in the restorative justice process, self-selection bias and the difficulty of establishing traditional treatment and control groups create methodological issues in studying the effects of restorative justice on recidivism (Latimer et al., 2005). Based on the nature of the sample in which they used a quasi-experimental design, Calhoun and Pelech (2010) cautioned against generalizing their findings which found positive effects on recidivism from restorative justice.

Measurement issues in terms of the operationalization of the independent variable, restorative justice, and the outcome variable, recidivism, have also created challenges. Bonta et al. (2007) cautioned that their findings related to the effects of restorative justice on recidivism may have been influenced by measurement issues in terms of the forms of restoration program investigated (e.g., victim-offender mediation, community service, apology, victim-impact statement). Additionally, others have suggested that outcomes should be adjusted by adding a covariate factor reflecting the probability of re-offending rather than just assessing the direct

effect of restorative programs alone (Bonta et al., 2007; Hayes, 2005; Latimer et al., 2005; Sherman et al., 2015). Other methodological issues in studying the effects of restorative justice on recidivism have involved such concerns as the variation in beginning and ending follow-up points and types of crime; distinctions among charged versus convicted incidents; and publication bias in the form of differences in effects between published and unpublished studies (Hayes, 2005; Latimer et al., 2005; Sherman et al., 2015). As the potential for recidivism always exists for given offenders, the data from studies that examine re-occurrence must always be deemed subject to review.

Before leaving this theme, it must be noted that some criminal justice scholars with research interests in restorative justice have argued against studies that suggest that the primary value of restorative justice can be observed in its effects in reducing recidivism. Presser, Gaarder, and Hesselton (2007) have warned that focusing on recidivism when examining restorative justice could marginalize the most important outcomes associated with restorative justice. Whereas the traditional criminal justice system is at least partially tasked with deterrence—and is, therefore, concerned primarily about recidivism—the value and effectiveness of restorative justice should not be viewed through the lens of reduced recidivism. Rather, assessments of the effects of restorative justice should focus primarily on such outcomes as restoration and the needs of victims (Hayes, 2005).

Effects of Restorative Justice Approaches on Offenders in the Criminal Justice System

A second major theme in the literature on restorative justice in the context of the criminal justice system addresses the effects of restorative versus other approaches on offenders (Arrigo & Schehr, 2006; Latimer et al., 2005; Palk et al., 1998). Not only has the literature suggested that offenders involved in a restorative justice program develop in terms of both restitution and

understanding, but there is also an increase in the concept of hopefulness as measured in Calhoun and Pelech (2010).

In a meta-analysis, Latimer et al. (2005) identified a small positive effect on offender satisfaction through a restorative justice process ($r = .17$, $SD = .13$) after removing one outlier based on its extremely small sample size ($N = 7$) and program entry point. Hayes (2005) identified greater offender satisfaction has been connected to the presence of victims in the process when considered through the lens of restitution and apology. Arrigo and Schehr (2006) found that restorative justice does provide offenders with the opportunity to view the offense through the lens of both a violation of law and a violation of victim, but suggest that many of the elements of traditional criminal justice remain in victim-offender mediation programs and that the transformative nature of restorative justice remains unrealized. It is possible that some offenders view some aspects of restorative justice, such as meeting victims and making restitution for their crimes, as more difficult and less satisfying than traditional systems (Bonta et al., 2002). It is also important to note that critics of restorative justice believe that there is too much focus on the offender and that a withdrawal of support for restorative justice among various stakeholders could occur as a result (Presser, Gaarder, & Hesselton, 2007).

One key conclusion from the literature on offenders and restorative justice is the need to establish a clear definition of offender satisfaction. For many offenders, it may be necessary to assume that satisfaction is based on avoiding incarceration and not on the concepts of restoration and restitution. Latimer et al. (2005) suggested that surveys measuring participation motivation would be a useful tool to incorporate in studies of restorative justice.

Effects of Restorative Justice Approaches on Victim Satisfaction in the Criminal Justice System

A third major theme found in the literature is the positive effect of restorative justice on victim satisfaction in the criminal justice system (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Latimer et al., 2005; McGarrell, 2001; McGarrell & Hipple, 2007; Palk et al., 1998; Presser, Gaarder, & Hesselton, 2007; Sherman et al., 2015; Strang et al., 2006). These findings are suggestive of the healing effects for the victim when restorative justice is employed. Latimer et al.'s (2005) meta-analysis identified a small positive effect from restorative justice programs on victim satisfaction ($r = .19$, $SE = .28$, equivalent to $d = 0.387$ and $CLE = 60.8\%$). The one negative effect size ($r = -.19$) out of the thirteen studies was found in the only program that positioned participants' entry point post-sentencing. Again, this is where the voluntary element of restorative justice remains paramount in identifying satisfaction. Sherman et al. (2015) argued that any restorative justice program without consent from the victim borders on being unethical. As a result, victim satisfaction in restorative justice often carries the caveat that the victim was willing to pursue this approach.

An additional key conclusion is in the involvement that victims feel they have in the process, especially when compared to the role of the victim in traditional criminal proceedings. Much of the increased level of victim satisfaction is not always associated with the outcomes, but rather in feeling connected and involved in the proceedings and having a greater voice (McGarrell, 2001).

There are inconsistencies in determining which elements of the restorative justice umbrella must be included in order to achieve victim satisfaction. The approaches employed in restorative justice can vary from solely face-to-face conferences (Strang et al., 2006) to the necessity of both restitution and apology in order for full victim satisfaction to occur (Bonta et al., 2002). There is concern that these elements of restorative justice, especially that of victim-

offender mediation, are flawed and that restorative justice cannot be fully realized and may marginalize the victim (Arrigo & Schehr, 2006).

The meta-analyses by Latimer et al. (2001) and Sherman et al. (2015) are both recommended starting points for further review of the impact and effectiveness of restorative justice practices in the criminal justice system. Although the studies on restorative justice in the criminal justice system can be suggestive when considering restorative justice in schools, it is important to note the clear and very important distinction between schools and prisons. Indeed, this criminal justice and school connection is often noted as one of the flaws of previous school policies of zero-tolerance. If the parallel drawn between criminal justice and schools is too great, then adopting restorative justice approaches in schools could incur many of the same problems identified in the literature on zero-tolerance policies and similar reform-based approaches (Greene, 2013; Payne & Welch, 2010).

Relationship of Restorative Justice in the Criminal Justice System to the Context of Schools

It is necessary now to transition from the effects of restorative justice in the criminal justice system to its application within the context of school discipline. The three emerging themes related to recidivism, offender outcomes, and victim satisfaction within the criminal justice system may be applied, within limits, to student discipline and justice approaches in the school setting. Although both the population and the environment are different between these two major institutional systems, the suggestion that the transformative potential of restorative justice can translate to that of school discipline is worthy of further study and exploration.

Gonzalez (2015) positioned restorative justice as a model that contributes to the overall purpose of education in that it can reinforce concepts of accountability to a greater community

beyond that of the wrongdoer and the victim. This framework is clearly established to create a stark divide between restorative justice and previous exclusionary principles more often associated with criminal justice. It is this conversion in core beliefs from one of criminalizing to restoration that Gonzalez (2015) identified as a divide between the two.

Although the themes from the literature on restorative justice in criminal justice provide some useful perspective and insights in considering the nature and effectiveness of restorative justice in schools, the parallels between these two very different systems are limited. In the remainder of this chapter, I turn to the literature on the nature, application, and outcomes of restorative justice as an approach to student discipline in schools.

Restorative Justice in Schools

In the ongoing efforts in schools to create safer classrooms and stronger learning communities, restorative justice has emerged as an attractive response to the problems experienced with zero-tolerance policies and punishment-based student disciplinary approaches. The climate of fear that Gonzalez (2012) attributed to zero-tolerance policies and the suggestion of a school-to-prison pipeline have encouraged schools to explore less punitive approaches to student discipline. McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead, Kane, Riddell, and Weedon (2008) positioned restorative justice in schools as an approach to student discipline that links deterrence to accountability and relationships within a school. Although the empirical evidence on restorative justice in schools has been limited, I believe there is reason for optimism that schools may increasingly pursue this approach to school discipline.

The Distinction Between Restorative Justice and Restorative Practices

For the purpose of this review and the overall study, the terms restorative justice and restorative practice are used interchangeably. However, in the same way that Latimer et al.

(2005) noted the problematic nature of the restorative umbrella in the criminal justice system and the need for a clear operational definition, the terminology used by a school can have an impact on defining the goals of a school. School leaders must determine what the impetus is behind a shift in school discipline. Responding to or deterring misbehavior, improving teacher-student relationships, or shifting the entire climate and culture of the school are all potential reasons behind a school's decision to explore restorative justice.

McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane, Riddell, Stead, and Weedon (2008) have argued that the term "restorative justice" reflects a reactive approach based on behavioral incidents. Further, they speculated that the differences in semantics between justice and practice suggest different motivations. Restorative justice reflects a process and response focused on an individual wrongdoer, whereas restorative practice reflects a whole school culture and school-wide approach to relationships—that is, restorative practice is indicative of a broader school culture and community. The conversations and relationships that are inherent in this systematic approach in addition to the management of a particular incident become the guiding principles of the school. However, questions remain as to whether restorative justice is simply another measure by which schools achieve compliance of students. Additionally, there is concern that even the language of restorative justice potentially connects too closely to that of criminal justice as opposed to school systems. If restorative justice continues to utilize terms such as “victim” and “perpetrator” then schools are still establishing discipline through the lens of criminal justice. It is in this regard that Mirsky (2007) found that restorative practices went beyond a response to misbehavior, but, rather, represented a process for changing the dynamics of relationships and interactions within the school community.

McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane, et al. (2008) have argued that internalizing restorative practices, as opposed to viewing them in the context of "justice," could lead to a better connection with current school practice and offer a more cohesive structure from classroom to classroom. Similar to Teske's (2011) concern of the independent nature of the organizations impacting juvenile justice, it may be argued that restorative justice initiatives are destined to struggle when they are only practiced in pockets within a school, such as in an individual classroom or the principal's office.

Effects of Restorative Justice in Schools

The majority of literature on restorative justice in schools reviews offender outcomes, victim satisfaction, and areas of increased or decreased disciplinary infractions. These areas, in addition to the impact on overall school culture, are explored in this section.

Impact on Suspensions, Behavioral Incidents, and Recidivism

There is evidence that the use of restorative justice in school will have a positive effect on areas of suspension, behavioral incidents, and recidivism (McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Mirsky, 2007; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007, Riestenberg, 2001; Stinchcomb, Bazemore, & Riestenberg, 2006; Wong et al., 2011). Both the Stinchcomb et al. (2006) case study in Minnesota and Mirsky's (2007) examination of three schools in Pennsylvania reported decreases in behavioral incidents with schools that incorporated restorative justice. Specifically, Mirsky identified improvements in the student-discipline areas of: (a) disciplinary referrals, (b) administrative detentions, (c) detentions assigned by teachers, (d) incidents of disruptive behavior, and (e) out-of-school suspensions. In all instances, except for an increase in detentions assigned by teachers in Year 2 and Out-of-School Suspension in Year 4, these areas experienced reductions from year to year and over the course of the full four years examined.

Restorative justice has shown positive effects in the reduction of overall bullying among students. The positive effect of restorative justice on bullying can be seen in both the self-reporting of the students (Wong et al., 2011) and in the behavioral infractions of the school (Ahmed & Braithwaite, 2012). Wong et al. (2011) determined that both the full implementation and a partial implementation of a restorative whole school approach were effective when measured through these areas. Additionally, almost half of students (49.9%) in the Wong et al. study had reduced their bullying behaviors with the specific behavior of “exclusion bullying” reduced at a highly significant effect in comparison to the nonintervention school in the study.

Focusing on recidivism, Mirsky and Wachtel (2007) evaluated student-discipline data from two alternative school programs in Pennsylvania that utilized restorative practices. They reported a reduction in incidents of recidivism for those students who remained in the program when compared to those that either left or were removed from the school. This finding was further confirmed when a replication study was completed with 858 new cases in the two years following the original study. In addition to finding that the chances of reoffending were in direct proportion to the amount of time spent in the restorative justice school program, the study determined that the longer a student was involved in a restorative school program, the less likely the youth would be to reoffend (Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007).

Restorative justice and gender. Featherston’s (2014) data analysis that utilized pre- and post-test measures on the Children’s Social Behavior Scale Self Report and the Social Problem Solving Skill Inventory Self-Report found three positive effects related to the incorporation of a restorative justice program in schools for African American female students: (a) significantly lower levels of social aggression, (b) higher levels of social problem solving skills, and (c)

significantly higher levels of pro-social skills. Although these effects are promising, the connection between gender and restorative justice in schools remains largely unexplored.

Restorative justice and race. Mirsky and Wachtel (2007) determined that restorative justice improved the attitude and behavior of any at-risk youth regardless of race and other factors. There is evidence that the race may be a factor in the employment of restorative measures in schools with a majority of students of color (Guckenburg, Hurley, Persson, Fronius, & Petrosino, 2015; Mayworm et al., 2016; Teske, 2011). Teske (2011) reported that the implementation of restorative practice programs found a 43% reduction in school-offense court referrals for youth of color.

In the previous chapter, I referred to the promise of restorative justice to address racial inequalities connected to school discipline, however, very little empirical investigation exists to examine this as an outcome of restorative justice in schools (Hurley et al., 2015). Gregory, Clawson, Davis, and Gerewitz (2015) found that higher restorative practice implementers issued less discipline referrals to Latino and African American students. Utilizing both student surveys and an analysis of teachers' use of discipline referrals, Gregory et al.'s study suggested that teachers perceived to be implementing more elements of restorative practice by the students tended to have fewer differences in the disciplinary referrals given to non-white students.

The Problematic Nature of Studying Restorative Justice in Schools Through the lens of Behavioral Incidents

There is limited empirical research on the impact of restorative justice in schools through the lens of behavioral incidents and recidivism rates as well as victim and offender satisfaction and overall school culture and community. As addressed and explored in this and the previous chapter, much of the literature on restorative justice is in the form of theoretical best practices

and best-case scenarios. Although there is a great deal of exploratory literature on restorative justice in schools, the limited studies and outcomes make it difficult to quantify its impact.

Additionally, there are several potential measurement issues that exist in any methodology that attempts to measure the effectiveness of restorative justice in schools. Hurley et al. (2015) identified the measurement struggles that occur given the inconsistent and school-specific models that exist for restorative justice. The restorative umbrella referred to by Latimer et al. (2001) pointed to the variety of forms that restorative justice can take. Whether a school uses peer circles, victim-offender mediation, student conferences or some combination of all of these techniques could become potential variables in any study. As the forms of restorative practice and implementation varied between Featherston (2014), Hantzopoulos (2013), and Wong et al. (2011), the transferability of these studies could be called into question.

Further, it is important to note possible distinctions that need to be made in the outcome variables of restorative justice. Although the temptation exists to simply look at the suspension rate of a school, behavior referrals is the more critical area to analyze. The practice of restorative justice will inherently reduce the number of suspensions. However, a reduction in suspensions does not necessarily equate to fewer behavioral infractions. If one principle of restorative justice is that a school will not utilize suspensions as a tool to address misbehavior, then studies must be careful to indicate the unit of analysis in any results reported.

The use of behavior referrals is an effective means of analyzing student behavior (Irvin, Horner, Ingram, Todd, Sugai, Sampson, & Bolland, 2006; Putnam, Luiselli, Handler, & Jefferson, 2003) and is the better variable to examine when analyzing restorative justice in schools. In order for schools to effectively analyze restorative justice through the lens of behavior and recidivism, it must carefully construct measures by which to quantify its impact. Referral data is

an accurate measure of discipline problems and the stronger unit of measurement when considering the efficacy of any behavior management system (Putnam et al., 2003). Both Putnam et al. (2003) and Irvin et al. (2006) stressed the important considerations in the analysis of referral data that must be present for any school or study that wishes to evaluate change in behavior.

Beyond Suspensions and Recidivism

The essence of restorative justice goes beyond that of fewer student suspensions. There are countless claims and normative theories that suggest restorative justice will affect the greater school community. The literature here examines the impact of restorative justice on school culture with special attention to victim satisfaction and offender outcomes.

Impact on graduation rates. Much of the current literature that examines graduation rates has been focused on the problematic nature of zero tolerance as opposed to any clear examination of restorative justice (Gonzalez, 2012). Riestenberg (2004) found an association between a policy of restorative justice and increased academic achievement, but did not directly make the connection to increased graduation rate among students. One school principal in the Riestenberg (2004) study indicated eight students would have previously dropped out of school had not the interventions associated with restorative justice been implemented, but this was limited to the principal's personal opinion and judgment.

The best indicator of the potential of restorative justice on the graduation rate in schools is Teske's (2011) case study of a multi-integrated system that incorporated restorative practice. This study examined a shift from a zero-tolerance approach to a multi-disciplinary protocol utilized by a juvenile court that incorporated and called upon a connection to schools and highlighted the role of schools as the protective factor against juvenile incidents. The results

showed a gradual increase in graduation rates capping at a 20% increase after a six-year period. The impact of a system of restorative justice on graduation rates within a school remains an area that needs further investigation and study.

Impact on school and climate. As many of the theories on restorative justice focus on whole school effects, it is important that empirical studies also look to address the impact of restorative measures on school climate. Restorative justice in school will have positive effects on the overall school climate when employed systematically and correctly (DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Gregory et al., 2015; McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al., 2008; Mirsky, 2007; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007; Riestenberg, 2004; Vaandering, 2013).

Many of the positive effects of restorative justice on overall school climate are related to the shift in dynamics within the relationships of the school. Restorative justice has shown improved relationships between teachers and students, improved collegiality among teachers, and a calmer effect on classrooms (Coates et al., 2010; Gregory et al., 2015; Hantzopoulos, 2013; Kaveney & Drewery, 2011; Morrison & Vaandering, 2012). Specifically, the change in dynamic from one of social control to one of social engagement is made clear with a shift to restorative justice. These improved relationships are a result of what students perceive as more respectful and less exclusionary methods in classrooms with teachers that implement restorative measures.

Both Coates et al. (2010) and Hantzopoulos (2013) addressed the improved culture attributed to restorative justice through the lens of community connection. Both studies determined that the overall culture of the school improved through the strengthened relationships between students and teachers, specifically when students felt that they would be heard and involved in the process of student discipline. The Hantzopoulos' (2013) 2-year ethnographic study focused on a specific restorative program, "The Fairness Committee," which views student

discipline as something determined through dialogue and consensus. Both teachers and students identified this committee approach as an opportunity to confront one another through a supported system that allows for voice and explanation. The study found that this democratic approach contributed to an increased level of respect and tolerance and improved the overall school experience.

The impact of restorative justice on overall culture is not limited to teacher-student relationships. Both Wong et al. (2011) and Morrison & Vaandering (2012) identified the improved relationships among teachers as conducive to the overall culture of the building. The connection between pedagogy and a teacher's understanding of student discipline remains paramount in how or if there were improved interactions between students and teachers (Morrison & Vaandering, 2012).

Much of the prescriptive literature also points to improved school culture through the lens of improved attendance as a mark of restorative justice. Despite this claim, there is no empirical evidence in the literature found that supports this assertion. Riestenberg (2004) utilized school attendance as one measure to evaluate school culture and climate through the lens of restorative justice, but found no increase in attendance at a statistically significant level. Further, although schools in the Stinchcomb et al. (2006) study reported a 10% increase in attendance between the 1997-1998 and 2000-2001 school years, the authors were careful to include that this increase could not be directly linked to restorative justice. As a result, the suggestion that an improved culture created by the restorative justice approach will lead to improved attendance has not been substantially identified in this review. The impact of restorative justice on school culture through the lens of attendance rates remains an area that warrants further research.

Victim satisfaction. Indicators of victim satisfaction remain a critical area to examine when considering the effectiveness of restorative justice in schools. Victim satisfaction, as measured by the self-reporting of participants, increases with the implementation of restorative justice (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Coates, Umbreit, & Vos, 2010; Mirsky, 2007; Riestenberg, 2004). The voluntary aspect of restorative justice needs to be considered once again, as without it, the essence of the practice can become compromised.

The majority of the literature on victim satisfaction within a system of restorative justice is more prescriptive by nature. While limited empirical studies have found an increase in victim satisfaction, identifying those factors that influence that satisfaction remains more speculative and should be subject to further review. Calhoun and Pelech (2010) identified the element of the restorative justice process that listens to the story and validates the experience of the victim as crucial for satisfaction. By providing an opportunity to talk about the incident and the pain it caused, victims identified a feeling of satisfaction attributed to being better understood by the offender. More so, satisfaction was increased when the victim was provided with an opportunity to assist and adjust the restoration agreement. These opportunities, plus the acceptance of responsibility by the offenders, can provide satisfaction and a reduction of anger for the victim (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Coates et al., 2010).

Offender outcomes and satisfaction. The concepts of restorative justice can lead to both improved offender outcomes and increased satisfaction levels among offenders in a discipline incident (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007; Riestenberg, 2004). The ability of restorative justice to move beyond punishment allows more opportunity for the offender to reflect on both the behavioral incident and the victim.

Restorative justice practices has shown improved rates of self-esteem and pro-social behavior among those offender students identified and placed in a restorative-based system of treatment (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; DeVore & Gentilcore, 1999; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007; Wong et al., 2011). Calhoun and Pelech (2011) determined that these improved rates of self-esteem emerged from the feeling of hopefulness that pre and post-test results showed for those involved in the restorative process.

Teacher and staff satisfaction. Both administrators and teachers could be satisfied with a restorative approach when examined through the lens of school climate (Gonzalez, 2012; Riestenberg, 2004; Stinchcomb et al., 2006). It is important to indicate that this satisfaction was reported when the teacher or staff member was outside of the specific incident and when the incident was considered a lower level of wrongdoing (McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Vaandering, 2013). Vaandering (2013) determined that staff will be satisfied with restorative justice up to a certain extent, but that teachers would want a traditional application of punishment for more severe behavioral incidents.

Implementation of Restorative Justice in Schools

In addition to the effects of restorative justice in schools, it is necessary to review the literature on the implementation process involved in a school's switch to this style and culture of discipline. Prior to the implementation of any restorative justice program in a school, there must be a thorough examination to identify those factors that could impact its success (Mayworm et al., 2016). The evaluation of a school district's readiness to incorporate restorative justice must be two-fold. First, the school must examine its current demographics, culture, and practice. It is critical to have an understanding of the current relationships that exist within the school to better understand what implementation approach is necessary. As McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al.

(2008) argued, there must be different approaches taken with teachers based on the existing ethos of the school and whether these values can successfully pair with those of restorative practice.

Second, it is critical that a school consider its investment in the long-term sustainability of a restorative justice initiative. It may take a school building several years to fully incorporate and internalize the concepts of restorative justice. Unfairly or not, many school initiatives are often seen as short-lived in terms of both interest and funding. If a school does not consider the resources necessary or if the staff sees restorative justice as a passing fad, then the school's ability to function may become compromised (McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al., 2008). As a result, it is necessary not only to look at the students' profiles and current practices of the school, but also to consider the availability of teachers' professional development and training needs (Guckenburg, Hurley, Persson, Fronius, & Petrosino, 2015). Restorative justice cannot be rushed into without first understanding the factors that are involved in its success or failure (Mayworm et al., 2016).

School Demographics

The racial make-up of a school and other demographics, such as enrollment, socio-economic status, and English proficiency, affect a school's decision to shift from traditional student discipline models to a restorative justice model. Urban schools with a greater African American, Hispanic, and economically disadvantaged populations are more likely to incorporate mandatory disciplinary policies, such as zero-tolerance, in an attempt to prevent misbehavior (Moore & Cooper, 1984; Nicholson-Crotty, Birchmeier, & Valentine, 2009; Payne & Welch, 2010; 2015). These disciplinary policies, such as verbal punishment or removal of students (Moore & Cooper, 1984) and suspension are found to be associated with referrals to the court system as well (Nicholson-Crotty et al., 2009).

Both Moore and Cooper (1984) and Payne and Welch (2015) identified the discrepancies among disciplinary choices between white students and students of color in two specific areas of discipline. In regard to referrals, Moore and Cooper (1984) found that teachers with a lower percentage of white students reported more frequent disruptive or violent forms of behavior. In terms of a management system, Payne and Welch's (2015) logistic regression analysis provided further empirical evidence of the disproportionate nature of disciplinary decisions based on race. The study found that schools with proportionally more African American students were less likely to utilize practices that were restorative. For each 1% increase in the percentage of African American students, the log odds of a school using student conferences ($b = -0.05, p < .01$), peer mediation ($b = -0.03, p < .05$), restitution ($b = -0.03, p < .05$), or community service ($b = -0.04, p < .05$) as a response to misbehavior decreased. Overall, Payne and Welch (2015) found that schools composed of more African American students negatively related to comprehensive restorative justice discipline at a statistically significant level. They concluded that if the racial composition of a school is the strongest predictor of discipline models, then the racial profile of schools might limit the likelihood that some schools will adopt a restorative justice model. Ironically, the schools that are the most likely to benefit from adopting a restorative justice approach are the same schools that would likely benefit most from moving to restorative justice practices (Gonzalez, 2015; Payne & Welch, 2010; 2015; Teske, 2011).

School Culture Prior to Restorative Justice

School discipline has a crucial impact on overall school culture as behavioral incidents and suspensions are important contributing factors to the overall school climate (Mayworm et al., 2016). As such, the climate and culture of a school are keys to the successful implementation of restorative justice (Brown, 2017; Gonzalez, 2015; Hantzopoulos, 2013; Mirsky & Wachtel,

2007). In order to successfully implement a system of restorative justice, schools must be adequately prepared with a clear understanding of how the approach impacts the overall culture and climate of the school.

Brown (2017) conducted a mixed-method, multi-site case study that examined the cultural needs of a school as it transitioned from a traditional student discipline approach to a restorative justice model. Specifically, the study found that a “listening culture” of restorative practices was highlighted as both a means to develop trust among the stakeholders of the school and also as a way to navigate the difficulties associated with the transition. The study found that the techniques of restorative justice provide a means to hear the concerns of teachers, students, and the greater community, and create the opportunity to model and reinforce the transformative power of the restorative justice approach.

Another important consideration in adopting a restorative justice approach to student discipline is whether a school turns to the new system as a reaction to specific events or whether adopting a restorative justice approach is a proactive choice. The restorative approach is most effective when student behavior is seen as a clear issue for a school (McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008). Although most studies speak to the need for a deliberate implementation process, it has been determined that, even when restorative justice is adopted in response to a specific incident, the new approach could still be an effective means to address both the incident and the greater school culture (DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012).

Identifying the Existing Power Structures

The traditional paradigm of power is another element of implementation that must be examined in the transition to restorative justice. As discipline management is an inherent part of the role of both teacher and school administrator, the use of restorative practices can reduce the

feeling of authority of each to effectively maintain structure within classrooms or the school building as a whole (McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al., 2008; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008). It is widely suggested that the power structure in teacher-student and administrator-student relationships is challenged under the new approach because restorative justice practices provide additional voice and process in addressing student discipline issues. In that regard, the principles of restorative justice do not adequately address the deeply constructed dynamics of power that exist within schools (McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al., 2008; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Vaandering, 2013). Vaandering (2013) found that these embedded power structures had the potential to either undermine or support change within a school system. Teachers that positioned restorative justice strictly within a discourse of behavior management were more likely to continue using managerial techniques associated with traditional forms of power. This was in direct contrast to teachers that placed restorative justice within a discourse of pedagogy that viewed restorative justice as a system of empowerment for students. The DeWitt and DeWitt (2012) case study further supported this need to recognize the traditional power dynamic between teacher and student in the classroom and where teachers placed restorative justice on this continuum.

Hantzopoulos (2013) concluded that attention must be given to the existing values of a school community and cannot be imposed on the school without examining its community values. McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead, et al. (2008) noted, however, that adopting a restorative justice model provides an opportunity not only to address complex power relationships within a school, but also to explore tensions among staff and possible solutions to conflicts. In fact, exploring the power dynamic of restorative justice can, in itself, force administrators and teachers to ask important questions about the relationships in their school. Through a series of

case studies, Gonzalez (2015) found additional evidence of the opportunity offered by restorative justice to provide students voice and accountability and to support administrators' authority and their ability to keep their school safe.

Teacher Perceptions About Discipline

The power structures that exist within schools are influenced by the perceptions teachers hold about student discipline. Chapter I referred to the dramatic shift in the perception of discipline that occurred in the late 1980s and early 1990s and the increased view of school students as troubled and dangerous. Although Brown and Payne (1992) determined very little shift in the perception of discipline among high school teachers throughout the 1980s, it is important to question and explore how the myth of the "super-predators" will impact perceptions of discipline for the next generation of teachers.

Formation of beliefs. Many of the beliefs about and practices of teachers related to student discipline were formed from their own life experiences as students themselves (Rimm-Kaufman, Storm, Sawyer, Pianta, & LaParo, 2006) as well as from their professional experiences in the years that they have served as teachers (Moore & Harris, 1984). These early life experiences have led many teachers to associate student discipline with adult power and control in schools. A substantial portion of the literature on teachers' views about student discipline has focused on the preservice years of aspiring teachers, when they are establishing the core values they later bring to their teaching and professional lives.

Preservice teachers tend to focus on power as a means to enforce discipline. As a result, teachers who are in their early years in the classroom demonstrate more authoritarian, consequence-based disciplinary techniques than those of their more experienced peers (Johnson, Whittington, & Oswald, 1994; Kaya, Lundeen, & Wolfgang, 2010; Moore & Harris, 1984;

Wichter, Jiao, Onwuegbuzie, Collins, James, & Minor, 2008). Moore and Cooper (1984) determined that as teachers gained experience, they preferred to use in-school suspension less and thought corporal punishment did more harm than good. More experienced teachers reported a preference to discuss misbehavior with students versus the less experienced teachers that preferred verbal and more exclusionary punishments.

Both Wichter et al. (2008) and Kaya et al. (2010) determined that preservice teachers were uncomfortable with allowing students to have increased voice in the classroom. It can be suggested that inexperienced teachers will be more resistant to a disciplinary system such as restorative justice that increases the voice of the students, particularly those students that may be difficult in the classroom. The discrepancies that exist between a teacher's concepts on discipline versus that of the actual practice are not surprising given the lack of experience and disciplinary techniques for that of a new teacher.

The restorative practice discussion is an opportunity for greater analysis and dialogue about teachers' perceptions on discipline. The literature on teacher perceptions on discipline suggests that those teachers early in their career are not only more reliant on exclusionary and power-based disciplinary techniques, but also internalize those characteristics as how behavior should be managed in the classroom. It can be determined that the shift in dynamic that restorative justice brings must be addressed with all teachers, but it might meet the most resistance or struggle from less-experienced teachers who perceive power and control as synonymous with discipline.

Discipline and pedagogy. The connection between restorative justice and the role of a teacher is one key element in preparing school staff for this new system of discipline.

Vaandering (2013) found a clear divide between those teachers who either placed restorative

justice as part of the pedagogy of teaching or as a separate initiative not connected with teaching. Those teachers who could successfully place restorative measures within the context of pedagogy saw their role as teacher as one of support, respect, and encouragement versus those who saw the teacher role as guide, manager, and expert. This difference in perspective not only affected the overall school culture, but also the way that restorative justice was utilized for specific incidents of misbehavior. Those teachers who saw restorative justice as extension of their role as teachers were more likely to incorporate these measures as intended, whereas those that saw it as an additional add-on and not connected to teacher's role tended to maintain control and goals of compliance even when attempting to employ restorative measures (Vaandering, 2013).

The predispositions of a teacher and the ability of the system of implementation to successfully address these perspectives will impact the success of restorative justice. Even in those schools that attempted to incorporate restorative justice, teachers had the potential to still use these practices as only that of a management tool and, as such, restorative justice was incorrectly repositioned within the discipline structure to still maintain the traditional forms of power and punishment (Vaandering, 2013).

Chapter Synthesis

The limited, prior research on restorative justice in schools has reported positive effects in the areas of behavioral infractions, recidivism, and overall school culture. However, a review of the literature in its totality suggests that there needs to be more attention given to the beliefs that individual teachers hold about student discipline and restorative justice in connection with overall teaching pedagogy. If teachers do not or will not connect the pillars and principles of

restorative justice to that of pedagogy and the role of a teacher, then restorative justice will not succeed.

Literature indicates that there is a voluntary component to the restorative justice process that determines its success rate. When this finding is coupled with the suggestion that teachers may feel threatened by the components of restorative justice that impact the power dynamic of the classroom, it is clear that steps to successful implementation will need to go beyond that of ongoing professional development and training. Resources and time for training and preparation is important, but without first understanding how teachers position restorative justice within the pedagogy, training may lack direction and accuracy.

Additionally, the literature that identifies the divide between preservice teachers and veteran teachers in the approach to discipline suggests that a gap exists between years of experience in teaching and successful discipline management. Teachers that are in the early stages of their career may incorrectly connect power with pedagogy and classroom management. This finding warrants important consideration when studying the effects of restorative justice within a school.

It is clear that there is still much to be studied on the impact of restorative justice in schools in both implementation and execution. While the qualitative reports coming from individual schools and the few quantitative studies that do exist are promising, there is still much more that needs to be explored in this proposed shift in behavior and discipline management. It is a premise of this study that a better understanding of how teachers perceive discipline and justice within the context of pedagogy is a necessary starting point in determining if a system of restorative justice or any system of discipline will be successful in a school.

Chapter III presents the methodology and research design used to evaluate teacher perceptions on discipline and justice through the lens of pedagogy.

CHAPTER III

PART ONE

PURPOSE AND RESEARCH QUESTIONS

This chapter describes the methodology employed in the study, which is designed to understand and identify the shared viewpoints classroom teachers hold about student discipline and justice in high school. A better understanding of teachers' perceptions of student discipline and justice will allow school leaders to properly address student discipline as it not only contributes to student misbehavior and recidivism but also to the overall culture of the school. The chapter begins with an introduction that presents the purpose of the study and the research questions that guided the research. It then presents a brief background and overview of *Q* methodology as it is used to study any subjective phenomena. The chapter concludes with a description of how *Q* methodology was implemented in this study.

Purpose of the Study and Research Questions

The purpose of this study was to discover models of shared viewpoints, beliefs, and attitudes that teachers hold about student discipline and justice in high school. In focusing on this subjective area of classroom management and approaches to student discipline, the research was guided by the following research questions (RQ):

RQ 1: What are the key shared viewpoints about student discipline and justice held by distinct clusters of high school classroom teachers?

RQ 2: What is the relative prevalence of each of the identified shared viewpoints within the study sample?

RQ 3: What are the key similarities and differences between the various shared viewpoints in terms of distinguishing statements, consensus statements, and non-salient statements?

RQ 4: How and to what extent are selected background and demographic factors associated with each of the identified shared viewpoints?

As teachers' viewpoints on matters of student discipline and justice in school are subjective by nature, the research required a methodology and design through which operant subjectivity could be studied and quantified in a manner in which systematic analysis could be conducted and meaningful interpretation could be achieved. *Q* methodology was selected to satisfy these research goals.

The answers to the four research questions can inform educational theory, practice, leadership, and policy regarding best practices in the area of student discipline and justice. A better understanding of the viewpoints of teachers could contribute to the larger national discussion on issues of student behavior as well as issues of school safety and security. Additionally, the disciplinary debates regarding zero-tolerance policies versus those grounded in restorative justice can be addressed if the perceptions of teachers regarding issues of student discipline and justice are better understood. Further, the identified viewpoints of teachers regarding student discipline could help to inform future teacher education programs for preservice teachers.

Before reviewing how *Q* methodology was implemented in the research design of this study, I present a brief overview of the foundations and techniques of *Q* methodology.

PART TWO

BRIEF OVERVIEW OF *Q* METHODOLOGY

FOR THE SCIENTIFIC STUDY OF SUBJECTIVITY

Q methodology was developed by William Stephenson in the early to mid-20th century to provide a systematic and scholarly approach to explore the subjective views of humanity. In a

letter to *Nature* in 1935, Stephenson suggested inverting factor analysis for the purpose of factoring persons (i.e., cases) rather than traits (i.e., variables). This by-person factor analysis, today known as *Q*-mode factor analysis, allows researchers to identify clusters of shared subjectivity (McKeown & Thomas, 2013; Stephenson, 1935). The change in factor analysis from the previous work of Stephenson's mentor, Charles Spearman, "shifted the focus from external metrics to self-reference" (McKeown & Thomas, 2013) and therefore allowed for the ability to more explore the subjectivity of individuals systematically and scientifically.

Prior to Stephenson's work, the most commonly held belief among scientists was that subjectivity and inter-subjectivity could not be studied scientifically (Coladonato, 2013). For many, subjectivity was simply what remained after all sources of variance had been determined (Brown, 1972). Brown (1972) further clarified this lack of importance placed on subjectivity in the way many researchers referred to it as the "psychometric slop" left after all other factors had been determined (p. 62). Stephenson, with PhD degrees in both physics and psychology, differed in his view towards subjectivity and understood and appreciated the mathematical connection and implication of this analysis (Watts & Stenner, 2012). He believed that by exploring these deeply personal views that it was possible to gain a richer understanding of humanity and identify shared models among participants that would allow for this study (Red Owl, 2017).

Stephenson presented the process of *Q* methodology as essentially transposing or inverting the data matrix analyzed in traditional factor analysis in order to organize variables in rows and subjects in columns. This process of analysis allows the correlation of subjects as a means of identifying clusters of persons with shared subjectivities. From these clusters of

persons, distinct models of shared viewpoints can be derived and those models can be used to describe the views and perceptions of the persons in the clusters (Stephenson, 1935; 1953).

As Sussman (2016) noted, it is important to distinguish “*Q* methodology” from “*Q*-technique” in studies employing methods based on *Q* sorting and *Q*-mode factor analysis. Stephenson (1935) originally proposed the use of *Q* sorting and *Q*-mode factor analysis as “*Q* technique,” focusing primarily on the technical matters of collecting data through a *Q*-sort process and analyzing a by-person data matrix using *Q*-mode factor analysis. Although his purpose was, from the beginning, to offer a system for the systematic study of subjectivity, his initial attention more narrowly addressed the techniques necessary to accomplish that. Stephenson (1953) subsequently expanded his focus on *Q* to include a more complete methodological system that extended beyond techniques to encompass philosophical perspectives and foundations that he believed necessary. This broader system is what is today known as *Q* methodology and has evolved to also encourage specific technical approaches as well as philosophical perspective. Among the technical approaches commonly associated with *Q* methodology are centroid principal components analysis, judgmental (aka theoretical or manual) factor rotation (as compared to statistically-based rotational methods such as varimax or oblimin), and “most to most” vs. “least to most” sorting scale anchors (discussed in more detail below). Further, *Q* methodology has evolved to stand apart from the more common “*R*” methodology, rooted largely in trait-focused (or variable-focused) correlational methods and techniques. Indeed, it is not uncommon for traditionalists in *Q* methodology to challenge researchers who use *Q* along with *R* methods.

Those who wish to move beyond the confines and strictures of *Q* methodology (and perhaps to combine *Q* techniques with *R* methods) but who want to employ the technical essence

of Stephenson's original more technically-oriented approach tend to use labels such as "*Q* sort methods" (Block, 2008; Kerlinger, 1972, 1986) or the original label "*Q* technique" (Sussman, 2016). Such labels are a clear signal in the spirit of full disclosure that those researchers are departing from some of the tenets of traditional *Q* methodology as Stephenson (1953), Brown (1980), and McKeown and Thomas (2012) have described them. Such scholars often use common factor analysis or principal components analysis rather than centroid principal components analysis, calculate factor scores based on all cases rather than selected "exemplar" cases, employ varimax or other statistical factor-rotation methods rather than judgmental rotation, and specify various alternative scale anchors (especially "least to most") on *Q* sort templates. Still other researchers exercise their discretion in freely modifying or departing from some of *Q* methodology's traditional tenets or technical and statistical details where they feel that is necessary but prefer to use the broader label of *Q* methodology as an umbrella term.

The Concept of Concourse in *Q* Methodology

In approaching the study of subjectivity, Stephenson established that it was first necessary to gather an entire population of opinion statements related to a specific topic (Brown, 1980; Stephenson, 1953). It is this endeavor that captures the concept of the concourse in *Q* methodology, or what McKeown and Thomas (2013) described as, "the often ambiguous, utterly subjective, semantically imprecise, yet wholly natural condition of human communication" (p. 17). Watts and Stenner (2012) suggested that one single theoretical definition of the concourse is hard to pinpoint as Stephenson himself provided a complex view with varied manifestations and presentations.

Originally referred to as the "universe of statements for any situation or context," Stephenson (1950) suggested that the concourse must contain innumerable units of behavior or

observable characteristics” (p. 28) for the purposes of describing aspects of subjectivity as a statistical distribution. A further understanding of the *concourse* can be explained through an examination of its etymology. Deriving from the Latin term *concursum*, it refers to both a stream of consciousness and a shared knowledge of a given concept (Brown, 1993; McKeown & Thomas, 2013; Stephenson, 1950; Watts & Stenner, 2012).

In gathering a *concourse* for a given topic, a researcher must conduct a rigorous review of literature as well as consider any personal communications with relevant stakeholders, personal experiences, and individual reflection on the subject. By obtaining a representation of the population, the *concourse* allows for the complete coverage of the topic (Brown, 1993; Watts & Stenner, 2012). In attempting to quantify subjectivity, the development of a thorough *concourse* is necessary in gathering all possible opinions on the topic in order for the process of *Q* methodology to be conducted properly.

Types of Samples in *Q* Studies

The two types of samples in *Q* studies consist of a person sample, referred to as the P set, and a statement sample, referred to as the *Q* set. The P set consists of the participants in the study who complete the sorting activity. Those participants in the P set must satisfactorily relate their sorting decisions to the given topic. As the concern of *Q* studies is not in identifying findings that are statistically generalizable to a larger population of persons, participants in the P set are usually not selected at random using non-probability sampling approaches, but rather they are selected based on theoretical grounds and comprise a non-probability, purposive sample reflecting the objectives of the study (Brown, 1980; Red Owl, 2017).

The *Q* set is the group of objects or statements that have been selected from the *concourse* to serve as a wide-ranging sample of perspectives of the subjective phenomena with

the goal of reflecting the comprehensiveness of the topic (Brown, 1993; Stephenson, 1953; Soliman, 2016; Sussman, 2016; Watts & Stenner, 2012). After finalizing the fully developed concourse, the *Q* set is the final sampling frame selected to adequately cover all those ideas, beliefs, and perspectives referred to in the concourse.

The total numbers of statements in the *Q* set must be carefully determined based on a number of items including the phenomena being explored as well as the time constraints that the *P* set may have in completing the sorting activity (Watts & Stenner, 2012). Although Watts & Stenner (2012) established a baseline of between 40 to 80 *Q* statements as typical size, both Soliman (2016) and Sussman (2016) clarified that relatively small *Q* sets are more than satisfactory coverage for the number of possible sorting patterns with the computational formula ($nPr = n!/[n - r]!$) allowing for a participant to sort items in more ways than the stars in the known universe (Brown, 1980).

Condition of Instruction

Participants in the study are guided to sort statements into a template according to a condition of instruction (COI). The COI serves as a guiding statement by which the purpose of the *Q* sort is provided and to establish the basis upon which the participants should make their sorting judgments. The COI must be constructed in a way that assures that participants have a clear understanding of the task with the simplicity of the COI aiding in that concise understanding of one single dimension and purpose (Watts & Stenner, 2012).

***Q* Sort Template and *Q*-Sorting Process**

Most *Q* studies employ a quasi-normal, forced choice, fixed-distribution template as shown in Figure 3.1. The forced-choice approach allows the participants in the study to review and adjust their own beliefs and attitudes towards the given subject and requires them to reflect

[illegible]

The *Q* Sort template design must also include an appropriate *Q*-sort scale with ranges from a 7-point scale (-3 to +3) up to a 13-point scale (-6 to +6) with ranking anchors at the far ends of each side of the template (McKeown & Thomas, 2013; Watts & Stenner, 2012). The ranking anchors used in the *Q* sort template have been a source of debate among *Q* scholars. Stephenson (1953) and Brown (1980) both argued in favor of ranking anchors ranging from *most disagree* to *most agree* for the purposes of establishing a psychologically significant true zero on the *Q* sort template. Stephenson (1953) asserted that the middle point of a true zero would not be comparable among participants without the *most disagree* to *most agree* condition.

Red Owl, as cited by Coladonato (2013), questioned this sorting scale by establishing the potential for measurement errors when using the *most disagree* to *most agree* condition scale.

This measurement error could potentially occur if participants were forced to sort a statement with which they did not agree into a column on the *disagree* side of the template. The unipolar scale of *least agree* to *most agree* eliminates this potential for measurement error but still, as Red Owl and others have argued, allows for the psychological anchor in the sorting scale (Coladonato, 2013).

No matter which sorting scale is decided upon, statements with which the participants feel the most strongly towards, either positively or negatively, are placed in the columns at the extreme ends of the sorting template. Statements that are of less importance or that participants are neutral towards are placed either in the 0 column or in those columns with the lower points assigned to it.

The *Q*-sorting process begins with participants being directed by the previously described COI. Following the COI, participants are usually instructed to first read the individual statements of the *Q* set and sort into three general piles of agreement, disagreement, and no opinion or unsure. After this initial sort into three piles, participants are then directed to place all of the *Q* statements into the *Q* sort template. The researcher may leave this as an open sorting process into the forced choice template or may provide further clarification and instructions to guide the participant such as “place the two statements with which you most agree into the far right column of the template” or “place the statements with which you least agree into the far left column of the template.” Participants continue the *Q*-sorting process until all statements have been placed into the template.

***Q*-Mode Factor Analysis and Factor Rotation**

Prior to analyzing the *Q* sorts, it is first necessary to organize the data into a transposed data matrix in which the variables are placed in rows and the subjects are placed in columns.

This transposing of the traditional data matrix allows for a variables-by-persons data format. An optional next step in analyzing the *Q*-sort data is to calculate correlations (and squared correlations) of persons based on their given *Q*-sort. Through a visual inspection of the correlation, it is possible to identify pairs of *Q*-sorts that reflect similar, contrasting, or unrelated viewpoints on the subject (Red Owl, 2017).

After this initial process, *Q* methodology requires the researcher to conduct a by-person principal components analysis or a common factor analysis to produce a set of unrotated factors that are then clarified through either judgmental (aka theoretical or manual) factor rotation or a statistically-based factor rotation such as Varimax (orthogonal rotation) or Oblimin (oblique rotation). Orthogonal rotation assures that the factors are not correlated and can provide distinct viewpoints. After rotation, each *Q*-sort will have a specific factor loading on each of the factors that have been extracted. These factor loadings indicate the degree to which a participant's views are similar to or different from those of the other participants on the viewpoint related to that given cluster of persons (i.e., factor). An interpretive cut-off criterion such as $\lambda \geq |+\!/\!-.30|$ or $\lambda \geq |+\!/\!-.40|$ is typically used interpret and create labels for the *Q* factors.

***Q* Factor Scores and Conversion to *Q* Scores**

Under traditional *Q* methodology, *Q* factor scores (z) are determined after a careful review of the factor loadings to identify the particular *Q*-sorts that have relatively high factor loadings (as determined by an a priori criterion factor loading for purposes of interpretation) on one particular factor and not on any other factor. These defining *Q*-sorts are identified and labeled as factor exemplars. *Q* factor scores are then created for each factor based on the weighted linear combination of the statement scores of all participants identified as factor exemplars (Watts & Stenner, 2005). Thus, under the traditional approach the factor scores for

each Q factor are based on a subset of participants. By contrast, the researcher can calculate factor scores in the more typical way common in R methodology (and included in almost all statistical packages), whereby the factor score for each factor is calculated as a weighted linear combination using the loadings of all cases. In the latter approach, cases that have relatively low factor loadings on a given factor (and which would not be identified as exemplars under the traditional Q methodological approach) contribute very little to the factor score. In essence, the latter approach uses more of the available information than the traditional approach in creating factor scores.

Factor scores (z) are not readily interpretable by those not trained in statistics or not familiar with the normal deviate, so it is common practice in Q methodology to convert the factor z scores to Q scores on the same scale as the sorting template. Initially, Stephenson (1953) presented this process of conversion through a rank-ordering of the statements within a factor by its factor score (z), placing them back into the template based on this ordering and then assigning each a Q score based on its placement within the columns. A more accurate method for converting z scores to Q scores is an algebraic approach under which the researcher multiplies the factor z score by the standard deviation of the sorting template to determine the corresponding Q score. This approach allows for more precision and better reflects intensity of views in Q scores without losing any information contained in the original factor z scores.

Q Models

In order to interpret and understand the shared subjectivities of the clusters of persons, it is necessary to develop Q models as sorted arrays of the Q scores. Q models are hypothetical Q sorts that reflect how persons whose views are reflected by a specific Q factor would likely sort the Q statements. To better understand each of the Q models, it is necessary to examine the

salient statements that are rated with either high positive Q scores (e.g., +4, +3, or +2 on a 9-point scale) or high negative Q scores (e.g., -4, -3, or -2 on a 9-point scale).

Maximum difference, valence, and consensus are additional calculations used for the purpose of interpreting and understanding the Q Models. Maximum difference (Max Diff.) is calculated to identify distinguishing statements from the Q sort that separate the viewpoints reflected in Q models. With a nine column (-4 to +4) sorting template allowing for a potential Max Diff. = 8, distinguishing statements are identified in this study as those with a Max Diff. ≥ 5.00 . Valence is a measure developed by Red Owl (personal correspondence, January 12, 2019) which was designed to identify the importance of a given Q statement across all models by calculating the mean of the absolute values of all Q scores for that statement. High-valence statements are defined (based on a personal judgment) as those statements with valence ≥ 2.25 . Consensus is determined when there is general agreement (or at least a lack of substantial disagreement) across Q models. For the purpose of this study, I determined that consensus across viewpoints exists when either (a) $Q \geq 2.00$ in at least two models and $|Q| < 2.00$ in any third model where Q is not ≥ 2.00 , or (b) $Q \leq 2.00$ in at least two models and $|Q| < 2.00$ in any third model where Q is not ≤ 2.00 . Essentially, these criteria hold that a statement reflects consensus across models when at least two models agree in the same direction at a salient level and where any third model that does not agree in that same direction is non-salient.

Non-salient statements are those statements that appear near the middle of the sorting scale on all Q models. However, despite these non-salient statements being considered least important by the subjects, it would be a mistake to disregard this information, as information about non-salience is useful in learning what the participants consider less important about the subjective phenomena.

It is incorrect to assume that *Q* models provide an exact description of any individual's specific viewpoint, but instead the *Q* models serve to generally describe an ideal type or prototypical model. Red Owl (2017) described *Q* models as similar to the policy platform of a political party in classifying persons as being associated with a particular political party. Although the platform ideally describes the "perfect" member of a political party, most would agree that the actual members of that party could and do still contain a range of viewpoints and probably no single member's views are perfectly and completely represented by the party's platform.

Reliability and Validity in *Q* Studies

In most social science research (typically associated with *R* methods), issues of reliability and validity are critical issues and are addressed in study methodologies. However, the nature and relevance of these concepts in *Q* studies differs from their nature and relevance in *R* studies. Reliability is a measurement property indicating the degree to which an instrument or method produces consistent results in repeated administrations of the measure. In *Q* studies, reliability addresses whether a participant's *Q* sort can be consistently replicated across time points. Brown (1980) determined that a participant's *Q* sorts could be replicated with 85% consistency in up to one year between sorts. Given the conventional standard of $\alpha \geq .71$ for reliability in *R*-based research, it is reasonable to assume that *Q* methodology is capable of producing acceptably reliable measurements. This conclusion may, however, be unnecessary if one believes that measurement reliability is simply irrelevant to studies of subjectivity. *Q* and other methods such as Repertory Grid are designed and intended to measure subjectivity, which would not necessarily be assumed to be time-invariant. That is, if *Q* is measuring such subjective phenomena as opinions, attitudes, values, and beliefs, there is not reason to assume that a

subject's views will remain constant across time. Except for the most fundamental core values (and perhaps not even then), people may well change their opinions, attitudes, values, and beliefs – so the measure of reliability as a reflection of constancy of measure may either be impossible in a technical sense or may just be irrelevant to subjectivity and the methods used to study subjectivity.

Although the relevance of reliability in *Q* studies can be debated, the concept of internal validity is objectively irrelevant in *Q* methodology and other approaches to the study of subjectivity. Validity in studies of objective phenomena is determined based on conformance with an external referent or criterion – but no such external criterion can exist in studies of subjectivity because subjectivity is necessarily self-referential and not subject to any external validation. For example, if a student were asked whether the earth is round or flat and she answers that it is round, the correctness of that answer can be validated externally by reference to scientific evidence. On the other hand, if she were asked whether she *believes* the earth to be round or flat, any answer she offers is valid if that is indeed her belief. Because any person's internal point of view is self-referent, one's subjectivity is not subject to comparison to external criteria, so the issue of validity simply does not apply in *Q* studies (Brown, 1980; McKeown & Thomas, 2013).

Generalizability (External Validity) and the Hypothesis-Generating

Nature of *Q* Studies

Q studies are not employed for the purposes of producing results that are generalizable (i.e., externally valid) to a larger population of people. Rather, their purpose and value their ability to provide distinct qualitative interpretations for the purposes of abductive reasoning and to generate empirically-grounded hypotheses (Brown, 1980; Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner,

2012). *Q* methodology can bring understanding and clarity to complex research questions grounded in subjectivity. *Q* allows for discovery and understanding that might not be possible in the traditional research method (Stephenson, 1953; Watts & Stenner, 2005) and can provide a solid foundation for other research. Hypothesis-generating studies are essential to the progress of science (Bourgeois, 1979; Carey & Boden, 2003; Hartwick, & Barki, 1994; Ioannidis, 2005; Joseph & Patel, 1990; Lawlor, 2007; Lijphart, 1971; Lundberg, 1976; McGuire, 1997; Minoura, 1996; Mulaik, 1985; Nabel, 2009; Silverstein, Auerbach, & Levant, 2006; Snyder, 2005). As Bourgeois (1979) concluded, “Empirical investigation, as a cumulative activity performed by social scientists as a whole, would flounder without the hypothesis generating function ...” (pp. 443-444).

PART THREE

RESEARCH DESIGN AND IMPLEMENTATION OF *Q* METHODOLOGY

IN THIS STUDY

Whereas the beginning of this chapter has focused on both the purpose of the study and the establishment of the necessary techniques of *Q* methodology, the remainder of this chapter presents the specific research design and techniques by which *Q* was implemented in this study. In this study, I have used the label *Q* methodology – or, more simply, just *Q* study – in its broadest, umbrella-term sense as discussed in the previous section. I disclose, however, that my study might just as well be labeled as a *Q*-technique study because I have freely deviated from some of the technical strictures of traditional *Q* methodology where I feel such modifications are appropriate and necessary. In particular, I employ the label *Q* methodology in the broader sense of the term, allowing the use of common factor analysis, statistical factor-rotation methods,

calculation of factor scores using all cases (rather than exemplars), and “least to most” *Q*-sort template scale anchors, as well as incorporating appropriate R techniques, as discussed below.

Study Population, Participant Sample, Concourse, and *Q* Statements Sample

As the nature of this study focused on the subjective phenomena of teachers' perspectives about issues of student discipline and justice in high schools, the following section details both the acquisition of the purposive P set in this study's design and also the process by which the concourse (universe of subjectivity on the topic) was developed and the *Q* set (sample of *Q* statements) was constructed.

Population and Person Sample (P Set)

The population of interest in this study included all current public high school classroom teachers in New York State. A voluntary, non-random sample of 71 public high school teachers in New York State constituted the person sample (P set) used for this study. I contacted public high school principals throughout New York State, including principals known personally through my professional contacts, explained the purpose of the study, and asked each to distribute copies of an online survey link to the teachers in their school. Additionally, I recruited participants using posts on social media platforms (e.g., Twitter and Facebook) frequented by teachers.

The survey was opened on November 28, 2018 and closed on January 7, 2019 after several days without additional responses. When the survey was closed, I had 71 eligible responses, making the final usable sample $n = 71$.

Concourse and *Q* Statement Sample

A concourse of 365 statements on the issue of student discipline and justice was created from a review of the literature, personal communications with numerous school administrators

and teachers, and from my own professional experience and judgment as both a classroom teacher and school administrator. From that concourse, a *Q* set of 48 statements was selected as representative of the full spectrum of subjectivity contained in the concourse. These 48 statements, which compose the *Q* sample employed in this study, and their sources are presented in Table 3.1, along with the six anticipated themes that emerged from this process. These themes include viewpoints and approaches to student discipline and justice in schools related to (a) student background, (b) consequences, (c) goal, (d) traditional approach, (e) progressive approach, and (f) restorative approach.

Table 3.1

Q Sample Framework: Anticipated Themes and Q Statements

Anticipated Theme	<i>Q</i> statements	Source or Inspiration
Student background	1. Most discipline problems can be explained by socio-economic status.	Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009;
	2. ADHD students require entirely different disciplinary procedures.	Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Osterhout, 2000
	3. Sometimes it's appropriate to consider gender in disciplinary choices.	Featherston (2014); Teske (2011)
Consequences	1. Violent infractions should always be referred to law enforcement.	Armour, 2012; Castillo, 2014; Dilulio, 1995; Gonzalez, 2015; Mallett, 2015; Nelson & Lind, 2015; Nicholson-Crotty et al., 2009; Purkey & Novak, 1984

- | | |
|---|--|
| 2. In-school suspensions solve student discipline problems very rarely. | Adams, 2000; Fronius et al., 2016; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Moore & Cooper, 1984; Zehr, 2015 |
| 3. Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome. | "A Statement of the Theory," 1874; Rodriquez Ruiz 2017; Scully, 2015 |
| 4. Not enough happens to students when they are removed from my class. | Author |
| 5. Detention is the most successful way to eliminate problem behavior. | Adams, 2000; Moore & Cooper, 1984 |
| 6. Having students write an apology for poor behavior just doesn't work. | Author |
| 7. Out-of-school suspension is the only way to change very bad behaviors. | "A Statement of the Theory," 1874; Adams, 2000; Allman & Slate, 2011; Scully, 2015 |
| 8. I believe that corporal punishment is just morally unacceptable. | Altenbaugh, 2003; Mann, 1844; Moore & Cooper, 1984; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1995; Spring, 2001; Urban & Wagoner, Jr., 2009 |
| 9. Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense. | American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; Scully, 2015; Skiba, 2014 |

	10. Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely.	"Two centuries of school discipline," 2016
	11. Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.	McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Vaandering, 2013
	12. Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences.	McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Vaandering, 2013
	13. Many discipline issues should be handled by police instead of schools.	Castillo, 2014; Dilulio, 1995; Gonzalez, 2015; Mallett, 2015; Nelson & Lind, 2015; Purkey & Novak, 1984; Scully, 2015
Goal	1. Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.	Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Coates et al., 2010; DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Mirsky, 2007; Riestenberg, 2001
	2. The best discipline systems keep problem students out of classrooms.	Allman & Slate, 2011; "Two centuries of school discipline," 2016; Reagan, 1984; Scully 2015
	3. The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people.	DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Fronius et al., 2016; Gregory et al., 2015; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Zehr, 2015
	4. The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.	Allman & Slate, 2011; Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Scully, 2015

	5. The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools.	Author
	6. School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice.	Castillo, 2014; Gonzalez, 2015; Mallett, 2015; Rodriguez Ruiz, 2017
Traditional approach	1. I believe in the old adage "spare the rod and spoil the child."	Altenbaugh, 2013; Snedden, 2017; Stowe, 1839; Washburn, 1848
	2. I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline.	Brown & Payne, 1992; Reagan, 1984
	3. Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines.	DeMitchell & Hambacher, 2016; Gonzalez, 2015; Skiba, 2014
	4. It's unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues.	Author
	5. Students will only change misbehavior if given tough punishments.	Altenbaugh, 2013; Dupper, 2007; Reagan, 1984; Snedden, 2017; Washburn, 1848
	6. Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities.	Author

Progressive approach	1. I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline.	Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009)
	2. Teachers who were problem students are better at student discipline.	Moore & Cooper, 1984; Rimm-Kaufman et al., 2006
	3. Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.	Fronius, et al., 2016; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008;
	4. Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than rules.	Fronius et al., 2016; Karp & Breslin, 2001; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Vaandering, 2013
	5. Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions.	Altenbaugh, 2003; Hiatt, 1994; Jeynes, 2007; Urban & Wagoner Jr., 2009
	6. Student discipline should focus more on the long term than short term.	Fronius et al., 2016; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Zehr, 2015
	7. Teachers should always be involved in disciplinary decision making.	Allman & Slate, 2011; Altenbaugh, 2007; Scully, 2015; Stowe, 1838;
	8. Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents.	Cabell, 1856; Coates et al., 2010; Fronius et al., 2016; Karp & Breslin, 2001; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Vaandering, 2013; Wong et al., 2011; Zehr, 2015

	9. Positive reinforcement should be part of school discipline processes.	Fronius et al., 2016; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Zehr, 2015
	10. Disciplinary consequences shouldn't interfere with family obligations.	Author
Restorative approach	1. Restorative justice is only appropriate for very minor offenses.	Hurley et al., 2015
	2. Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome.	Coates et al., 2010; Hantzopoulos, 2013
	3. Certification programs shouldn't over-promote restorative practices.	Johnson et al., 1994; Kaya et al., 2010; Wichter et al., 2008
	4. Restorative practices should only be used for first infractions.	Author
	5. Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good.	American Psychological Association Zero Tolerance Task Force, 2008; DeMitchell & Hambacher, 2016; Epstein, 2014; Heitzeg, 2009; Scully, 2015; Skiba, 2014; Weingarten, 2015; Wilson, 2014
	6. Peer mediation is an effective solution to many discipline problems.	Brown, 2017; Vaandering, 2012; Zehr, 2015
	7. Restorative justice too often rewards students with behavior problems.	Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007; Morrison & Vaandering, 2012;

8. Restorative justice approaches make schools and teachers look weak.	McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Morrison & Vaandering, 2012; Vaandering, 2013
9. I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.	Gonzalez, 2015; Riestenberg, 2004; Morrison & Vaandering, 2012; Stinchcomb et al., 2006
10. Discipline should never be a matter of negotiation with the student.	Brown, 2017; Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Kaya et al., 2010; Vaandering, 2013; Wichter et al., 2008

Covariate Measures

The covariates considered in this study were incorporated in the research design to provide a descriptive understanding of the demographic and other background characteristics of the study's participants whose views about student discipline and justice are reflected in the Q models. The covariates that were included are presented in Table 3.2 and discussed further below.

Table 3.2

Covariates: Characteristics of Participating Teachers

Factor	Level
Number of years of full-time teaching experience	Number of years of experience in whole years, including the current year
Subject area taught	English Language Arts, Social Studies, World Language; Mathematics, Sciences, Business; Physical Education, Music, Art; Special Education,

ENL, Academic Intervention Services

View of student discipline in participant's school	No serious discipline problems at all, some disciplinary problems, but fewer than most schools, about the same degree of disciplinary problems as in most other schools, more disciplinary problems than in most other schools, very serious disciplinary problems
View of restorative justice	Not effective at all or harmful, mostly not effective, about as effective as other approaches to discipline, somewhat effective, very effective

Number of years of full-time teaching experience. The number of years of classroom-teaching experience may influence a teacher's perception on issues of student discipline and justice (Moore & Cooper, 1984; Rimm-Kaufman et al., 2006). Studies have indicated that teachers early in their career and pre-service teachers may rely on consequence-based disciplinary practices more than is the case for more experienced teachers (Johnson et al., 1994; Kaya et al., 2010; Moore & Cooper, 1984; Wichter et al., 2008). Participants were asked to describe their teaching experience in terms of the number of years of full-time teaching experience they have completed, inclusive of the current school year. For the 71 participants in this study, the median number of years of classroom teaching experience was 15 ($M = 15.9$, $SD = 6.8$) with a range from three to 31 years.

Subject area taught. The subject area taught by the participant and its relationship to both discipline and restorative justice was not found in an exhaustive search of the literature. It is my professional view, however, that the participant's subject area may be related to the participant's views about student discipline and justice. Based on personal communications with

three Long Island, New York, superintendents as well as my personal reflection from years as both a teacher and a school administrator, I have concluded that teachers approach discipline and justice in ways that vary by their content specialties. This categorical covariate includes the following response categories: (a) *English Language Arts, Social Studies, World Languages*, (b) *Mathematics, Sciences, Business*, (c) *Physical Education, Music, Art*, (d) *Special Education, ENL, Academic Intervention Services*. Of the 71 participants, 40.9% (29) were teachers of English Language Arts, Social Studies, or World Languages, 28.2% (20) are Special Education, ENL, or Academic Intervention Services teachers, 26.7% (19) were Mathematics, Sciences, or Business teachers, and 4.2% (3) were teachers of Physical Education, Music, or Art.

View of student discipline in participant's school. The overall climate and culture of a school is influenced both by behavioral incidents and by teachers' perceptions of the needs of the school (Brown, 2017; Mayworm et al., 2016). Further, the view of student discipline in the school may affect a teacher's readiness to accept new student disciplinary practices, including those involved in restorative justice (Kaya et al., 2010; Wichter et al., 2008). This covariate described the disciplinary experience and climate of the participant's school and included five response categories: (a) *No serious discipline problems at all*, (b) *Some disciplinary problems, but fewer than most schools*, (c) *About the same degree of disciplinary problems as in most other schools*, (d) *More disciplinary problems than in most other schools*, (e) *Very serious disciplinary problems*. Of the 71 participants in this study, 49.3% (35) indicated that their school experienced about the same degree of disciplinary problems as most other schools with 32.4% (23) reporting some disciplinary problems but fewer than in most other schools, and 1.4% (1) reporting no serious disciplinary problems at all. Conversely, 15.5% (11) of the participants reported more

disciplinary problems than in most schools with another 1.4% (1) indicating very serious disciplinary problems.

View of restorative justice. Similar to the effect of a participant's experience with restorative justice as discussed above, the way a participant views the concept of restorative justice was expected to influence that participant's *Q* statements sorting pattern. Vaandering (2012) determined that teachers could be satisfied with restorative justice up to a certain extent, but that applications of traditional punishment systems would be expected in more severe instances. In the same study, Vaandering found that the establishment of restorative justice practices could challenge existing power structures within schools. The perception of restorative justice and its possible shift of the power dynamic are worthy of study (DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Hantzopoulos, 2013). Participants in this study were asked to identify how effective they believed restorative justice could be in addressing student discipline in high schools today. The measure constituted an ordinal, single-item scale with five levels: (a) *Not effective at all or harmful*, (b) *Mostly not effective*, (c) *About as effective as other approaches to discipline*, (d) *Somewhat effective*, (e) *Very effective*. This ordinal measure was assumed to reflect an underlying continuum and was, therefore, analyzed as a continuous measure.

Narrative Explanations of Extreme-Sorted Statements plus Insights and

Other Comments About Student Discipline and Justice

The survey also included several narrative-response, qualitative items. Participants were asked to offer explanations in their words for why they sorted each of the two statements they placed in the +4 column (*Most Agree*) of the template and also for why they sorted each of the two statements they placed in the -4 column (*Least Agree*) of the template. These items were

identified as optional in the survey, and received usable narrative responses from 61 (85.9%) of the participants.

Additionally, in a final question on the survey, the participants were offered an opportunity to provide additional insights and comments about their views of student discipline and justice. The response space for this item was a self-expanding textbox, so there was no limit on the length of responses to this question. This question received usable narrative responses from 25 (35.2%) of the participants.

Data Collection and Online Survey

The data were collected using an online survey conducted on an anonymous, voluntary basis to assure complete privacy to those teachers who responded. Screen shots of the survey instrument are presented as Appendix B. The survey was designed to place minimal burden on participants with an expected completion time of approximately 15 to 20 minutes. The median completion time for the sample was $M = 17.97$ minutes, so this objective was satisfied.

Data were collected through an anonymous online survey programmed with the public domain software *HtmlQ* by approxima (<https://github.com/aproxima/htmlq>), a *Q*-sorting tool in HTML5 available under an MIT open source license (<http://www.opensource.org/licenses/MIT>) and hosted on a secure server at Long Island University. Participants sorted the *Q* statements from the *Q* set shown in Table 3.1 into the template provided in Figure 3.2. Upon completion of the *Q* sort, participants answered the demographic questions from Table 3.2.

The *Q*-sort instructions in the survey asked the participants to initially sort the statements into three bins: (a) statements with which participants *most agreed*; (b) statements with which participants *least agreed*; and (c) statements about which participants had *no opinion* or about which they were uncertain. Participants were then asked to re-sort the statements from the initial

bins into a template (described and shown below) using both slots in the columns on the right side of the template reflecting agreement (+4, +3, +2, +1) and slots in the columns on the left side of the template reflecting disagreement (-4, -3, -2, -1). All other statements remaining after this portion of the sorting activity were to be placed in the no opinion or neutral column of the template (0) or in those columns nearest the middle, if needed.

Condition of Instruction for this Study, *Q* Sort Template, and Sorting Scale

The condition of instruction given to participants to guide their sorting judgments is: “Please sort these statements into the template in the way that best describes your views about approaches to student discipline and justice in high schools.” The *Q* sort template used in this study is presented in Figure 3.2 and reflects a forced-choice, quasi-normal distribution with a 9-point sorting scale for 48 *Q* statements. The sorting scale was anchored from *least agree* (-4) to *most agree* (+4) and all other columns on the template were labeled only with numbers. This template was designed to approximate a normal distribution within the limits of 48 statements and offers the following psychometric properties: $M = 0.00$, $SD = 2.06$, Skewness = 0.00, and Kurtosis = 2.31. In a normal distribution, these properties would be reflected as $M = 0.00$, $SD = 1.00$, Skewness = 0.00, and Kurtosis = 3.00.

[illegible]

Figure 3.2. Forced-choice, quasi-normal, Q sort template with 9-point scale and 48 sorting cells. The distributional properties of this template statistics are $M = 0.00$, $SD = 2.06$, Skewness = 0.00, and Kurtosis = 2.31, suggesting that this template approximates a normal distribution.

Q Factor Analysis and Development of *Q* Models

The Q sort data were analyzed with Q -mode factor analysis and Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization using: (a) Stata/IC version 15.1; (b) *paran*, a user-written add-on program for Stata (Dinno, 2015); and *sortl*, another user-written add-on program for Stata (Enzmann, 2009). The Q -mode factor analysis was conducted to identify clusters of participants with shared viewpoints about student discipline and justice. The number of factors extracted for rotation was determined based on a visual inspection of a scree plot of eigenvalues of ≥ 1.5 as indicators of factors reflecting the shared viewpoints of at least two participants (rounding up).

The factor scores (z) were calculated using all cases and were converted to Q scores using the algebraic procedure described above. Q models were derived from the rotated Q factors and

after Varimax rotation and Kaiser normalization. *Q* models were created as rank-ordered arrays of the *Q* statements based on the statement *Q* scores.

Analysis of Narrative, Qualitative Data

The narrative data obtained in this study for the qualitative data analysis was obtained from the narrative response request given at the end of the survey. This statement provided participants with the following option: "Please add any other comments or insights you would like to share with me about approaches to student discipline in high schools today." Although this opportunity was optional for the participants, it was completed by 35.2% (25) of the respondents. Traditional qualitative analysis techniques were utilized to determine an understanding of this qualitative data.

Ethical Considerations and Human Subject Protections

All participants of this anonymous survey identified themselves as public high school teachers working within New York State. All participants were informed of both the purpose and benefits of the survey through an introduction and letter of informed consent on the first page of the online survey. All participants were given an additional opportunity to withdraw consent at the end of the *Q* sort survey.

There were no known or anticipated risks to either the participants or their schools from participation in this study. All participants were voluntary and their responses were anonymous. None of the data that was collected was identifiable and all data was collected with prior approval from the Long Island University Institutional Review Board (IRB).

Further, I am obligated to disclose my current role as a principal of an alternative, public high school in New York State that considers different forms of discipline for behavioral

incidents and implores its teachers to factor in elements of student background and trauma with more weight than a typical public high school.

Methodological Limitations

The use of *Q* methodology presents certain methodological limitations that were considered in the development of this research. One aspect of the concourse development was based on a thorough literature review in the area of student discipline and with consideration to the greater history of education in the United States. The placement of the sort statements into anticipated themes was based on this review and on my own experience as an educator and administrator. It is anticipated that participants may vary in their understanding and interpretation of certain statements.

As stated previously, *Q* methodology is not employed for the purposes of producing results that are generalizable to a larger population of people. Rather, the value of *Q* methodology is in the ability to provide distinct, qualitative interpretations to generate empirically grounded hypotheses. Although the importance of hypothesis-generating research is well documented in the literature, the inability to generalize to a larger population is a methodological limitation of this study.

Further, although the development of the *Q* models is based on a quantitative process, the analysis of these models and the search for their meaning relied on an interpretation of the qualitative data by the researcher. This qualitative process therefore becomes an anticipated limitation of the study.

Chapter Synthesis

This chapter has presented the four research questions that guided this study, provided a brief overview of *Q* methodology, and presented a detailed description of how it was employed

in this research. The benefit in utilizing *Q* methodology is in capturing the wide-ranging views on student discipline and justice held by teachers and determining the shared models that come from these perspectives. Although not generalizable, the techniques of *Q* described in this chapter allow for a study of the complex, subjective concept of student discipline and allows for discovery and understanding that might not be possible with traditional research methods.

Chapter IV presents the results of the *Q* factor analysis, the *Q* models that have been identified from this analysis, and an analysis of these *Q* models based on the covariate measures of the participants.

CHAPTER IV: RESULTS

This chapter provides the findings of the study based on the data obtained from the survey described in Chapter III. The first section of this chapter identifies the results of the *Q* factor analysis. The second section presents each of the *Q* models of shared viewpoints about student discipline and justice revealed by the high school classroom teachers in the study sample. The third section of the chapter describes the relative prevalence of each of the identified shared viewpoints within the study sample. The fourth section identifies the distinguishing statements and the key differences and similarities between the viewpoints of the models. The conclusion of the chapter details the extent to which specific factors are associated with the identified shared viewpoints.

Results of the *Q* Factor Analysis

A *Q*-mode factor analysis was conducted to identify clusters of participants with shared viewpoints about student discipline and justice as reflected in the *Q* sorts. The *Q* factors identify distinct clusters of study participants who hold similar views about student discipline and justice and were used in the development of the *Q* models described below.

Based on the criteria described in Chapter III, three *Q* factors were identified, extracted, and rotated orthogonally using Varimax rotation with Kaiser normalization in order to create a set of uncorrelated factors reflecting shared viewpoints. Figure 4.1 shows the scree plot of unrotated eigenvalues, which suggests the extraction and further analysis of three factors with the following eigenvalues: $F1 = 20.49$, $F2 = 12.31$, and $F3 = 5.04$. Cumulatively, these three factors explain 53.30% of the variance in the sorting patterns of the *Q* statements with $F1$ accounting for 28.86%, $F2$ reflecting an additional 17.34%, and $F3$ representing 7.10% of the variance.

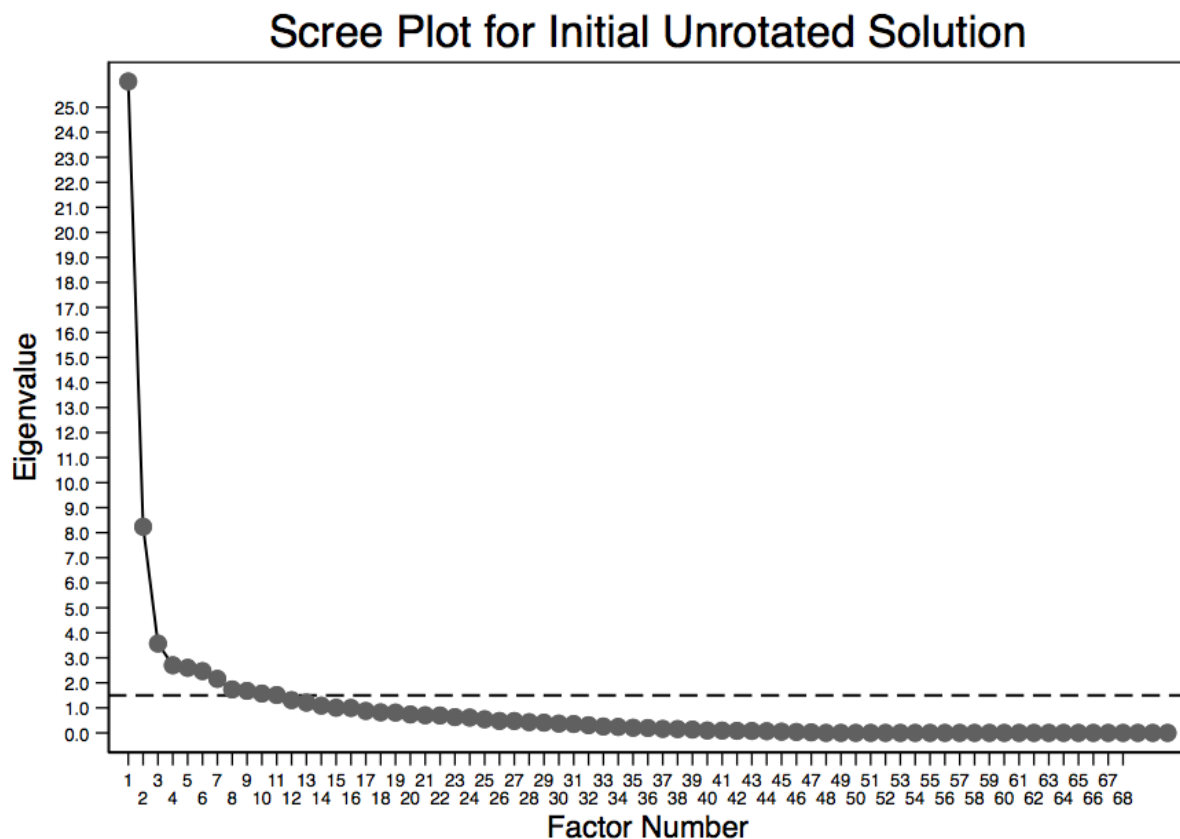


Figure 4.1. Scree plot of eigenvalues by factor number. This plot was used to determine the number of factors to be extracted and further analyzed.

The extracted factors were rotated orthogonally using the Varimax procedure with Kaiser normalization, producing the three-factor solution presented in Table 4.1. This table shows the sorted factor loadings, their eigenvalues (*EV*), the percentage of variance explained by each factor, and the uniqueness (*U*) statistic for each participant. Factor loadings that satisfy the interpretive criterion of $\lambda \geq |.40|$ for each factor are shown in bold face.

Table 4.1

Q Factor Loadings After Varimax Rotation With Kaiser Normalization

Case	Factor1	Factor2	Factor3	<i>U</i>
Case44	.889	.155	.028	.185
Case43	.876	-.094	.107	.213
Case64	.870	.074	.247	.176
Case18	.857	.135	.160	.221
Case48	.812	.087	-.154	.309
Case30	.803	.113	.303	.251
Case28	.801	.167	.030	.330
Case59	.800	.038	.098	.348
Case08	.798	.076	.097	.348
Case04	.789	.017	.098	.368
Case41	.774	.271	-.057	.324
Case68	.760	.117	.014	.408
Case02	.760	.044	.231	.368
Case32	.756	-.063	.144	.403
Case34	.747	.092	.173	.404
Case23	.736	.141	.111	.426
Case03	.726	.135	-.099	.445
Case20	.717	.206	.170	.415
Case29	.694	-.029	.413	.347
Case01	.690	.309	.187	.393
Case70	.663	.183	.180	.494
Case37	.640	.004	.465	.374
Case10	.635	.252	.251	.470
Case24	.633	.036	.416	.426
Case60	.616	.449	.254	.354
Case47	.592	.322	.269	.474
Case45	.576	.031	.002	.668
Case25	.562	.273	.424	.430
Case42	.561	.310	.068	.584
Case66	.559	.342	-.238	.514
Case38	.545	.092	.439	.502
Case52	.488	.463	-.060	.544
Case27	.487	.393	.356	.481
Case61	.482	.289	.037	.683
Case15	.481	.441	.217	.527
Case71	.468	.350	-.151	.635

Case40	.446	.321	.302	.607
Case46	.415	.271	-.244	.695
Case49	.345	.156	.148	.834
Case63	-.207	.740	.071	.405
Case16	-.244	.736	.243	.340
Case13	.413	.708	-.089	.321
Case11	.073	.705	.078	.492
Case31	.133	.703	.149	.466
Case09	-.089	.691	.106	.503
Case07	.316	.689	.115	.412
Case19	.374	.686	.026	.388
Case51	.077	.681	.163	.504
Case35	.071	.659	.123	.545
Case65	.511	.645	.101	.312
Case54	.328	.641	.019	.481
Case21	.310	.632	.095	.495
Case17	-.132	.602	.113	.607
Case69	.417	.599	-.071	.462
Case26	.088	.595	.410	.470
Case56	.568	.578	.077	.338
Case55	.051	.574	.207	.625
Case06	.392	.563	-.135	.512
Case67	-.181	.554	.363	.528
Case50	.307	.552	.156	.577
Case33	.467	.529	.012	.502
Case39	.015	.465	.343	.666
Case05	.342	.461	-.070	.665
Case12	.332	.460	.085	.670
Case57	.308	.345	.282	.706
Case58	.140	.244	.684	.453
Case53	.255	.267	.682	.399
Case62	.203	.269	.610	.514
Case36	-.003	.132	.583	.643
Case22	.269	-.055	.558	.614
Case14	.014	.434	.495	.566
EV	20.488	12.311	5.041	
%	28.856	17.339	7.101	

Note. Boldface indicates loadings $\geq |.40|$. EV = eigenvalue. % = % variance explained. Total variance explained = 53.30%.

As shown in Table 4.1, 76.1% (54) of the participants load uniquely on individual factors, indicating that those Q factors, as well as the Q models derived from them, are the single-best reflections of those individuals' shared views about school discipline and justice. Further, 15 (21.1%) of the participants cross-loaded on two factors. Of those who cross-loaded on two factors, 11.3% (8) participants hold viewpoints that are hybrids of Factor 1 and Factor 2, 7.0% (5) have shared viewpoints that are hybrids of Factor 1 and Factor 3, and 2.8% (2) revealed shared viewpoints that are hybrids of Factor 2 and Factor 3. In total, 97.1% (69) of the participants load at or above the interpretive criterion of $\lambda \geq .40$ on one or more factors. Two (2.8%) participants did not satisfy the cut-off criterion on any factor and hold unique viewpoints. That indicates that these two participants hold views that are not shared with the other participants in the study sample and perhaps suggests that the statements included in the Q set did not include views that were indicative of their viewpoints.

The three-factor solution is sufficient to explain all or a portion of 69 of the 71 (97.2%) high school classroom teachers' views about student discipline and justice as evident in the uniqueness (U) results. The uniqueness (U) shown for each case in Table 4.1 reflects the proportion of variance that is not explained for each case by the three factors taken together. The median uniqueness in the three-factor solution is $U = .467$ with U ranging from .176 to .834 for all participants and from .176 to .695 for the participants who loaded at or above the criterion on at least one factor. This suggests that the three-factor solution explains almost half of the viewpoint of the typical participating case and as much as 82.4% in one case (i.e., Case 64). The remaining unexplained variance (46.7%) represents a combination of either unique viewpoints held separately by the individual participants or those views not captured in the Q set statements developed for this study.

The median absolute value factor loading in Factor 1 for those cases that satisfy the interpretive criterion is .640 with a minimum absolute value factor loading of .413 and a maximum absolute loading of .889. There are 30 (42.3%) unique positive factor loadings for Factor 1 and no negative loadings above the cutoff criterion. The percentage of variance explained for Factor 1 is 28.86% with an eigenvalue (*EV*) of 20.49.

The median absolute value factor loading in Factor 2 for those cases that satisfy the interpretive criterion is .601 with a minimum loading of .441 and a maximum loading of .740. There are 19 (26.8%) unique positive loadings for Factor 2 and no negative loadings above the cutoff criterion. The percentage of variance explained for Factor 2 is 17.34% with an eigenvalue (*EV*) of 12.31.

The median absolute value factor loading in Factor 3 for those cases that satisfy the interpretive criterion is .439 with a minimum loading of .410 and a maximum loading of .684. There are 5 (7.0%) unique positive loadings for Factor 3 and no negative loadings above the cutoff criterion. The percentage of variance explained for Factor 3 is 7.10% with an eigenvalue (*EV*) of 5.04.

***Q* Models of Shared Viewpoints of Student Discipline and Justice**

Using the methods and procedures outlined in Chapter III, the *Q* factor scores for each statement for each case were algebraically converted to *Q* scores in order to understand the basis of the shared viewpoints represented by the factor clusters previously described. Those *Q* scores were then interpreted and labeled in terms of the content of the text of the *Q* statements.

The *Q* models of shared viewpoints are derived from the *Q* scores discussed below and used as evidence to answer each of the study's research questions. The statistical characteristics,

the statements from the *Q* set, and the interpretation of each of the *Q* models are presented in the discussions of the individual *Q* models in response to the first research question.

Research Question 1:

Key Shared Viewpoints About Student Discipline and Justice Held by Distinct Clusters of High School Classroom Teachers

In response to the first research question, each of the three model viewpoints revealed through the *Q*-mode factor analysis are discussed below.

***Q* Model 1: Student Discipline and Justice as a Humanistic, Individualized Experience Centered on the Teacher-Student Relationship and Separate From Academic Progress**

The first *Q* model is presented in Table 4.2 and reflects the shared viewpoints of high school classroom teachers who perceive student discipline and justice as a *humanistic, individualized experience centered on the teacher-student relationship and separate from academic progress*. This *Q* model explains 28.9% of the statements variance in *Q* sorts and reflects the viewpoints shared uniquely by 42.3% (30) participants in the study.

Q Model 1 also reflects the partial viewpoint of an additional 18.3% (13) of the participants, suggesting that their viewpoint about student discipline and justice is a hybrid of *Q* models and positively reflects the perspective of *Q* Model 1 and some of the perspective of other models. Of these 13 hybrid models, 11.3% (8) are a hybrid of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 and 7.0% (5) are a hybrid of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3. No participant with a positive loading on Factor 1 had a negative loading on Factor 2 or Factor 3.

Q Model 1 reflects at least the partial viewpoint about school discipline and justice of 60.6% (43) of the high school classroom teachers who participated in this study. Table 4.2 displays this model, with salient positive statements ($Q \geq 2.00$) highlighted in green, salient

negative statements ($Q \leq -2.00$) shown in yellow, and non-salient statements ($-2.00 < Q < 2.00$) shown in white.

Table 4.2

Q Model 1: Student Discipline and Justice as a Humanistic, Individualized Experience Centered on the Teacher-Student Relationship and Separate From Academic Progress

Item	Z1	Q1	Theme	Statement
44	2.15	4.43	PU	The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people.
42	1.82	3.75	PR	Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.
28	1.57	3.25	PU	School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice.
35	1.29	2.67	RS	Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good.
4	1.21	2.50	CO	I believe that corporal punishment is just morally unacceptable.
43	1.14	2.36	RS	Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome.
47	1.13	2.33	CO	Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely.
36	1.12	2.32	CO	Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences.
7	1.06	2.19	PR	Student discipline should focus more on the long term than short term.
11	1.06	2.19	PR	Positive reinforcement should be part of school discipline processes.
39	0.86	1.78	PR	Disciplinary consequences shouldn't interfere with family obligations.
41	0.84	1.73	PR	Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions.
24	0.79	1.63	PR	Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than rules.
33	0.75	1.55	RS	Peer mediation is an effective solution to many discipline problems.
1	0.65	1.34	PR	Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents.
27	0.65	1.34	CO	In-school suspensions solve student discipline problems very rarely.
22	0.56	1.16	PR	Teachers should always be involved in disciplinary decision making.
30	0.47	0.97	BK	ADHD students require entirely different disciplinary procedures.
5	0.35	0.72	PR	I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline.
37	0.28	0.57	TR	Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities.
25	0.25	0.51	PU	The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools.
40	0.16	0.32	BK	Sometimes it's appropriate to consider gender in disciplinary choices.
12	0.10	0.21	BK	Most discipline problems can be explained by socio-economic status.

10	0.06	0.12	PR	Teachers who were problem students are better at student discipline.
3	-0.16	-0.34	CO	Violent infractions should always be referred to law enforcement.
18	-0.24	-0.49	CO	Not enough happens to students when they are removed from my class.
8	-0.34	-0.70	RS	Restorative justice is only appropriate for very minor offenses.
26	-0.37	-0.77	CO	Having students write an apology for poor behavior just doesn't work.
38	-0.40	-0.83	RS	Certification programs shouldn't over-promote restorative practices.
2	-0.42	-0.87	RS	I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.
15	-0.42	-0.87	RS	Discipline should never be a matter of negotiation with the student.
6	-0.51	-1.06	RS	Restorative justice approaches make schools and teachers look weak.
48	-0.52	-1.06	TR	Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines.
9	-0.59	-1.22	TR	I believe in the old adage "spare the rod and spoil the child."
16	-0.59	-1.23	CO	Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense.
14	-0.73	-1.50	PU	Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.
17	-0.89	-1.83	TR	I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline.
19	-0.89	-1.84	TR	Students will only change misbehavior if given tough punishments.
32	-0.96	-1.98	RS	Restorative practices should only be used for first infractions.
13	-0.97	-2.01	TR	It's unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues.
31	-0.99	-2.04	CO	Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.
20	-1.05	-2.18	CO	Out-of-school suspension is the only way to change very bad behaviors.
23	-1.19	-2.45	RS	Restorative justice too often rewards students with behavior problems.
46	-1.24	-2.55	CO	Detention is the most successful way to eliminate problem behavior.
45	-1.43	-2.95	PU	The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.
21	-1.59	-3.27	CO	Many discipline issues should be handled by police instead of schools.
34	-1.87	-3.86	PU	The best discipline systems keep problem students out of classrooms.
29	-1.97	-4.06	CO	Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome.

Note. Eigenvalue = 20.49. Variance explained = 28.9%. Unique loaders = 30 (42.3%). Cross loaders = 13 (18.3%). Total loaders = 43 (60.6%). Z1 = standardized factor score. Q1 = Q score. Key to themes: BK = Background, CO = Consequence, PR = Progressive, PU = Purpose, RS = Restorative, TR = Traditional. Green highlighting indicates positive salience ($Q \geq 2.00$), yellow indicates negative salience ($Q \leq -2.00$) and a white background indicates non-salient statements ($-2.00 < Q < 2.00$).

Q Model 1 reflects the viewpoints of high school classroom teachers who believe that student discipline and justice is connected to a humanistic viewpoint of students that focuses on understanding the misbehavior and keeping students in the classroom. Consistent with much of the literature on the positive effective of relationships on discipline, *Q* Model 1 frames an approach to student discipline and justice that is centered on who the student “is” as opposed to what the student “did.” Positively-scored statements 44 (*The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people*), 42 (*Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior*), and 35 (*Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good*) reflect views that any approach to discipline must examine and consider both the individual student and the individual act in order to identify and address a behavioral incident. This humanistic approach to discipline and the need to view students as people are expressed throughout the narrative responses for those participants whose views are held uniquely or partially in *Q* Model 1. Examples of these responses include:

- “Once we see them in this way, we want to help them with their problems, not just punish them” (Case 01)
- “They should be able to maintain their dignity when being disciplined” (Case 10), and
- “They need to feel worth, affirmation, and that they have some control” (Case 30).

The humanistic viewpoint of student discipline from *Q* Model 1 is further indicated by positively-scored statements 7 (*Student discipline should focus more on the long term than the short term*) and 11 (*Positive reinforcement should be part of school discipline processes*), as well as negatively-scored statement 13 (*It’s unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues*), all of which suggest that long-standing behavioral issues can be changed by developing positive relationships with students and understanding the causes of behavioral

incidents. This viewpoint suggests that student discipline and justice must be treated as a long-term process and should not be examined through the lens of any singular incident.

Negatively-scored statements 29 (*Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome*), 45 (*The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones*), and 20 (*Out-of-school suspension is the only way to change very bad behaviors*), as well as positively-scored statement 47 (*Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely*), reflect views that any approach to discipline must be concerned with keeping all students in the classroom when behavioral incidents occur and when considering consequences for those behaviors. This viewpoint is further exemplified by positively-scored statement 28 (*School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice*), which reflects a view of school discipline distinctly different from the exclusionary model that is characteristic in the criminal justice system.

An additional important view reflected in *Q* Model 1 is that school discipline and justice must be kept distinct from the academic progress of the student. Positively-scored statement 36 (*Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences*) and negatively-scored statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors*) suggest the shared view that teachers should not conjoin grades with behavior, but rather should explicitly ignore behavioral issues when assessing a student's academic progress. One participant (Case 08) whose views were expressed in *Q* Model 1 responded to statement 31 with, "Just absolutely not. Nope. Behaviors have social catalysts that are unrelated to academics. If a student misbehaves, it should never have an impact on his/her grade."

The analysis of the statement patterns in *Q* Model 1 reveals four essential views about student discipline and justice that are consistent with the themes, issues, and studies discussed in the literature review in Chapter II:

- Student discipline should be approached on a case-by-case basis for both the student and the incident (Gonzalez, 2015; Mirsky, 2007; Teske, 2001);
- Positive relationships with students improve overall student discipline (Brown, 2017; Coates et al., 2010; Hantzopoulos, 2013; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008; Morrison & Vaandering, 2012);
- Effective student discipline keeps students in the classroom and in school (Gonzalez, 2015; Teske, 2001); and
- Academic progress and the grades of students should not be affected by student behavior (Morrison & Vaandering, 2012; Riestenberg, 2004; Vaandering, 2013).

***Q* Model 2: Student Discipline and Justice as a Rules-Based System, Separate From Academic Progress, That Must be Consistent and Administered Without Regard to Individual Students or Relationships**

The second *Q* model is presented in Table 4.3 and reflects the shared viewpoints of high school classroom teachers who perceive student discipline and justice as a rules-based system, separate from academic progress, that must be consistent and administered without regard to individual students or relationships. This *Q* model explains 17.3% of the statements variance in *Q* sorts and reflects the views shared uniquely by 26.8% (19) of the participants in the study. It provides at least a partial viewpoint of school discipline and justice for a total of 40.8% (29) of the high school classroom teachers who participated in this study.

Q Model 2 also reflects the partial viewpoint of an additional 14.1% (10) of the participants, suggesting a view of student discipline and justice that is nuanced and which reflects some of the perspective of other models. Of these participants, 11.3% (8) have a hybrid viewpoint reflecting portions of *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 1, and 2.8% (2) hold a viewpoint that is a hybrid of *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 3. No participant with a positive loading above the interpretive criterion on Factor 2 had a negative loading on Factor 1 or Factor 3.

Table 4.3

Q Model 2: Student Discipline and Justice as a Rules-Based System, Separate From Academic Progress, That Must be Consistent and Administered Without Regard to Individual Students or Relationships

Item	Z2	Q2	Theme	Statement
48	2.22	4.58	TR	Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines.
37	1.71	3.52	TR	Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities.
25	1.68	3.46	PU	The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools.
15	1.57	3.23	RS	Discipline should never be a matter of negotiation with the student.
16	1.16	2.38	CO	Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense.
26	0.99	2.04	CO	Having students write an apology for poor behavior just doesn't work.
18	0.98	2.03	CO	Not enough happens to students when they are removed from my class.
42	0.98	2.02	PR	Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.
3	0.75	1.54	CO	Violent infractions should always be referred to law enforcement.
44	0.72	1.49	PU	The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people.
19	0.67	1.39	TR	Students will only change misbehavior if given tough punishments.
11	0.64	1.33	PR	Positive reinforcement should be part of school discipline processes.
23	0.63	1.30	RS	Restorative justice too often rewards students with behavior problems.
38	0.63	1.29	RS	Certification programs shouldn't over-promote restorative practices.
28	0.59	1.21	PU	School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice.
43	0.50	1.03	RS	Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome.
29	0.46	0.94	CO	Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome.
5	0.43	0.89	PR	I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline.
14	0.38	0.79	PU	Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.
32	0.35	0.73	RS	Restorative practices should only be used for first infractions.
22	0.35	0.73	PR	Teachers should always be involved in disciplinary decision making.
4	0.35	0.72	CO	I believe that corporal punishment is just morally unacceptable.
36	0.34	0.69	CO	Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences.

27	0.17	0.36	CO	In-school suspensions solve student discipline problems very rarely.
6	0.00	-0.01	RS	Restorative justice approaches make schools and teachers look weak.
8	0.00	-0.01	RS	Restorative justice is only appropriate for very minor offenses.
21	-0.01	-0.01	CO	Many discipline issues should be handled by police instead of schools.
17	-0.09	-0.18	TR	I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline.
2	-0.13	-0.27	RS	I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.
13	-0.25	-0.52	TR	It's unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues.
7	-0.26	-0.53	PR	Student discipline should focus more on the long term than short term.
9	-0.49	-1.02	TR	I believe in the old adage "spare the rod and spoil the child."
30	-0.51	-1.05	BK	ADHD students require entirely different disciplinary procedures.
10	-0.58	-1.20	PR	Teachers who were problem students are better at student discipline.
33	-0.63	-1.30	RS	Peer mediation is an effective solution to many discipline problems.
34	-0.64	-1.32	PU	The best discipline systems keep problem students out of classrooms.
39	-0.65	-1.34	PR	Disciplinary consequences shouldn't interfere with family obligations.
20	-0.67	-1.38	CO	Out-of-school suspension is the only way to change very bad behaviors.
46	-0.90	-1.85	CO	Detention is the most successful way to eliminate problem behavior.
47	-0.96	-1.98	CO	Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely.
1	-1.06	-2.18	PR	Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents.
12	-1.06	-2.20	BK	Most discipline problems can be explained by socio-economic status.
31	-1.18	-2.43	CO	Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.
35	-1.37	-2.83	RS	Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good.
45	-1.78	-3.67	PU	The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.
24	-1.85	-3.82	PR	Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than rules.
41	-2.00	-4.13	PR	Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions.
40	-2.18	-4.50	BK	Sometimes it's appropriate to consider gender in disciplinary choices.

Note. Eigenvalue = 12.31. Variance explained = 17.3%. Unique loaders = 19 (26.8%). Cross loaders = 10 (14.1%). Total loaders = 29 (40.8%). Z1 = standardized factor score. Q2 = Q score. The key to the themes is available in Table 4.2. Green highlighting indicates positive salience ($Q \geq 2.00$), yellow indicates negative salience ($Q \leq -2.00$) and a white background indicates non-salient statements $-2.00 < Q < 2.00$.

Q Model 2 reflects the views of high school classroom teachers who perceive student discipline and justice as a rules-based system, separate from academic progress, that must be consistent and administered without regard to individual students or relationships. With positively-scored statement 25 (*The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools*), *Q* Model 2 establishes the importance of student safety and asserts the view that safety is achieved through established policy and strict adherence to its procedures. Positively-scored statements 48 (*Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines*) and 16 (*Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense*), as well as negatively-scored statements 40 (*Sometimes it's appropriate to consider gender in disciplinary choices*), and 35 (*Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good*), reflect the view that student discipline must be based on an established set of guidelines for behaviors and consequences for all students. As demonstrated in positively-scored statement 37 (*Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities*), participants whose views are reflected by this model believe that disciplinary consequences can and should affect the activities of students beyond the classroom or school day.

One participant (Case 06), whose views are expressed in *Q* Model 2, responded to positively-scored statement 48 with, "The best discipline systems are ones that lack emotional responses. Punishments are response to certain behaviors. There are no ways to manipulate the situation and consequences do not feel personal." The view that discipline should be predetermined was further elaborated by another participant (Case 31) whose views are expressed in *Q* Model 2 as, "We do students an injustice by making things up as we go along...Jails are over run [sic] because we didn't perhaps teach students that rules and laws are

not meant to be broken and there are consequences for actions no matter what your circumstance.”

Another participant (Case 35), whose views are expressed in *Q* Model 2, approached the concept of zero-tolerance as it relates to student empowerment: “Zero tolerance gives students the power to make the choice and show them consequences for their actions – this shows them THEY control their behaviors.” This positive view of zero tolerance was echoed by another teacher (Case 67), who wrote, “If the students know the ramifications of their action, it should deter them from those decisions.”

An additional view expressed in *Q* Model 2 is that teachers cannot allow their relationships with students or the background and context of a behavioral incident to affect the disciplinary process. Negatively-scored statements 24 (*Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than the rules*), 1 (*Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents*), as well as positively-scored statement 15 (*Discipline should never be a matter of negotiation with the student*), not only reinforce a view that values consistent rules and consequences, but also underscore the importance within *Q* Model 2 of removing all relational aspects and student voice from the process of discipline. This is extended beyond students to parents, as evidenced by negatively-scored statement 41 (*Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions*), asserting that no outside influence or the background of students or parents should be considered in student discipline. Narrative responses from participants whose viewpoint was expressed by *Q* Model 2 centered on the consistency that these statements suggested, while also cautioning against the ability for students to bargain consequences if given the ability to negotiate.

Although the viewpoint of *Q* Model 2 expresses this removal of “heart” from the discipline process, positively-scored statement 42 (*Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior*) suggests a need for understanding as it relates to a behavioral infraction. Additionally, negatively-scored statement 45 (*The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones*) suggests an approach that is grounded in working to keep all students in classrooms and school. Further, *Q* Model 2 holds the view of negatively-scored statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors*) that the academic progress of students should not be considered in matters of discipline. One teacher (Case 17) whose views were expressed in *Q* Model 2, emphasized this distinction with, “A student’s grades and his behavior are two separate arenas of the school’s responsibility. The two should not intersect because a student’s academic performance should not be made to suffer or to improve based on his behavior.”

The analysis of the statement patterns in *Q* Model 2 reveals three essential views about student discipline and justice consistent with the themes discussed in the literature reviewed in Chapter II:

- Schools should have well-defined rules and consequences for all students (Johnson et al., 1994; Kaya et al., 2010; Moore & Cooper, 1984; Wichter et al., 2008);
- Relationships with students and student background should not be considered in the discipline process (Latimer et al., 2005; McCluskey, Lloyd, Stead et al., 2008); and
- Academic progress and the grades of students should not be affected by student behavior (Morrison & Vaandering, 2012; Riestenberg, 2004; Vaandering, 2013).

***Q* Model 3: Student Discipline and Justice as Connected to Academics and Humanistic, and Needing Change From the Traditional Model**

The third *Q* model is presented in Table 4.4 and reflects the shared viewpoint of high school classroom teachers who perceive student discipline and justice as *connected to academics and humanistic, and needing change from the traditional model*. This *Q* model explains 7.1% of the statements variance in *Q* sorts and reflects the views shared uniquely by five (7.0%) participants in the study. It provides at least a partial viewpoint about school discipline and justice held by 16.9% (12) of the high school classroom teachers who participated in this study.

Q Model 3 also reflects the partial viewpoint of an additional 9.9% (7) participants, suggesting a view of student discipline and justice that is a hybrid of models and which positively reflects some of the perspective of the other models. Of the participants whose viewpoints are represented in hybrids of the models, 7.0% (5) hold a viewpoint that is a hybrid of *Q* Model 3 and *Q* Model 1, and 2.8% (2) have a hybrid viewpoint of *Q* Model 3 and *Q* Model 2. No participant with a positive loading on Factor 3 has a negative loading on Factor 1 or Factor 2.

Table 4.4

Q Model 3: Student Discipline and Justice as Connected to Academics and Humanistic, and Needing Change From the Traditional Model

Item	Z3	Q3	Theme	Statement
31	2.30	4.75	CO	Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.
5	1.72	3.55	PR	I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline.
41	1.42	2.93	PR	Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions.
25	1.33	2.75	PU	The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools.
37	1.21	2.50	TR	Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities.
43	1.13	2.33	RS	Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome.
22	1.10	2.27	PR	Teachers should always be involved in disciplinary decision making.
29	1.05	2.18	CO	Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome.
1	1.04	2.14	PR	Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents.
7	0.85	1.74	PR	Student discipline should focus more on the long term than short term.
34	0.82	1.69	PU	The best discipline systems keep problem students out of classrooms.
3	0.81	1.66	CO	Violent infractions should always be referred to law enforcement.
18	0.73	1.52	CO	Not enough happens to students when they are removed from my class
33	0.71	1.47	RS	Peer mediation is an effective solution to many discipline problems.
32	0.68	1.39	RS	Restorative practices should only be used for first infractions.
42	0.64	1.31	PR	Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.
23	0.60	1.24	RS	Restorative justice too often rewards students with behavior problems.
44	0.53	1.09	PU	The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people.
11	0.42	0.87	PR	Positive reinforcement should be part of school discipline processes.
24	0.30	0.61	PR	Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than rules.
40	0.17	0.35	BK	Sometimes it's appropriate to consider gender in disciplinary choices.
12	0.08	0.17	BK	Most discipline problems can be explained by socio-economic status.
21	-0.08	-0.17	CO	Many discipline issues should be handled by police instead of schools.

2	-0.08	-0.17	RS	I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.
27	-0.12	-0.26	CO	In-school suspensions solve student discipline problems very rarely.
10	-0.13	-0.28	PR	Teachers who were problem students are better at student discipline.
14	-0.15	-0.31	PU	Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.
38	-0.25	-0.52	RS	Certification programs shouldn't over-promote restorative practices.
4	-0.34	-0.70	CO	I believe that corporal punishment is just morally unacceptable.
9	-0.34	-0.71	TR	I believe in the old adage "spare the rod and spoil the child."
19	-0.40	-0.83	TR	Students will only change misbehavior if given tough punishments.
6	-0.47	-0.96	RS	Restorative justice approaches make schools and teachers look weak.
13	-0.48	-0.98	TR	It's unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues.
8	-0.54	-1.11	RS	Restorative justice is only appropriate for very minor offenses.
26	-0.65	-1.34	CO	Having students write an apology for poor behavior just doesn't work.
46	-0.69	-1.43	CO	Detention is the most successful way to eliminate problem behavior.
35	-0.69	-1.43	RS	Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good.
48	-0.72	-1.48	TR	Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines.
15	-0.79	-1.62	RS	Discipline should never be a matter of negotiation with the student.
45	-0.79	-1.63	PU	The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.
20	-0.84	-1.73	CO	Out-of-school suspension is the only way to change very bad behaviors.
30	-1.01	-2.09	BK	ADHD students require entirely different disciplinary procedures.
39	-1.19	-2.46	PR	Disciplinary consequences shouldn't interfere with family obligations.
17	-1.48	-3.05	TR	I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline.
28	-1.53	-3.15	PU	School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice.
47	-1.72	-3.56	CO	Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely.
16	-1.77	-3.64	CO	Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense.
36	-2.39	-4.93	CO	Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences.

Note. Eigenvalue = 5.04. Variance explained = 7.1%. Unique loaders = 5 (7.0%). Cross loaders = 7 (9.9%). Total loaders = 12 (16.9%). Z1 = standardized factor score. Q3 = Q score. The key to the themes is available in Table 4.2. Green highlighting indicates positive salience ($Q \geq 2.00$), yellow indicates negative salience ($Q \leq -2.00$) and a white background indicates non-salient statements ($-2.00 < Q < 2.00$).

Q Model 3 reflects the viewpoint of high school classroom teachers who perceive student discipline and justice as connected to academics and humanistic consideration, and also needing change from the traditional model. With negatively-scored statement 36 (*Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences*) and positively-scored statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behavior*), a central view in *Q* Model 3 is a connection between student discipline and academics. One participant (Case 26), whose view was partially reflected in *Q* Model 3, wrote about this connection in explaining why statement 36 was negatively-scored: "I think there should be academic and extracurricular consequences for students when they misbehave. If the student doesn't value what is being taken away, then I don't think it will impact their behavior."

Another view within *Q* Model 3 reflects a humanistic approach to discipline by which the individual student and incident should be examined and considered. Negatively-scored statements 16 (*Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense*) and 28 (*School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice*), as well as positively-scored statements 1 (*Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents*) and 7 (*Student discipline should focus more on the long term than short term*), highlight the view that student discipline should not simply focus on a single behavioral incidents, but, rather, should be seen in the context of long-term relationships with individual students. One participant (Case 24), whose views were partially expressed by *Q* Model 3, wrote in regard to negatively-scored statement 16: "Not true – how can this be?? Every student discipline issue is unique and consequences should be decided based on fact – not by the predetermined rules."

Positively-scored statements 41 (*Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions*) and 22 (*Teachers should always be involved in disciplinary decision*

making) further support the humanistic perspective in *Q* Model 3. These statements identify a collective voice of both parents and teachers that is essential in the student discipline process.

Beyond endorsing the use of grades to influence behavior, *Q* Model 3 also reflects a view of consequences that could occur outside of the school day. Negatively-scored statements 39 (*Disciplinary consequences shouldn't interfere with family obligations*) and 47 (*Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely*), as well as positively-scored statement 37 (*Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities*), demonstrate the view that students should be held accountable for behavior with consequences that extend outside of the classroom. In regard to these consequences, the humanistic view of *Q* Model 3 is further revealed through positively-scored statement 43 (*Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome*). This suggests alternative forms of discipline that are humanistic rather than punitive.

It is important to note the view of *Q* Model 3 expressed in negatively-scored statement 17 (*I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline*) that suggests the need for change in current school-discipline policies. This is the only model among the three in which this view was expressed. The suggestion of a need for change is further implied in positively-scored statement 5 (*I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline*) in that the broader viewpoint of *Q* Model 3 is that not only is there a need for change, but the voice of teachers should be considered more in matters of student discipline.

The analysis of the statement patterns in *Q* Model 3 reveals four essential views about student discipline and justice:

- There are teachers that hold a connection between student discipline and academic consequences (Morrison & Vaandering, 2012; Riestenberg, 2004; Vaandering, 2013);

- Student discipline should be grounded in relationships and the understanding of individual students (DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Gregory et al., 2015; McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al., 2008; Mirsky, 2007; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007; Riestenberg, 2001; Vaandering, 2013);
- Student discipline could and should occur outside of school (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; DeWitt & DeWitt, 2012; Mirsky & Wachtel, 2007; Riestenberg, 2001); and
- There is a need for change in current school-discipline policies (Guckenburg et al., 2015; Mayworm et al., 2016).

Synthesis of *Q* Models

Three shared viewpoints about student discipline and justice emerged from this study. *Q* Model 1 reflects the viewpoint that discipline is not simply about the cause and effect of a behavioral incident and its subsequent consequence. Rather, the viewpoint of *Q* Model 1 positions student discipline and justice as a theoretical construct created through the relationships between individual students and teachers. Further, this humanistic approach includes the views that discipline must recognize the value of students as people and that any forms of exclusion can work against realizing that core value. *Q* Model 1 holds the view that any discipline process is incomplete if the reason for misbehavior is not addressed and that a long-term commitment to discipline is more effective than any short-term measures.

The viewpoint of participants for whom *Q* Model 2 is at least a partial reflection, however, removes any individual relationships between teachers and students and, instead, positions discipline as a system of established rules with prescribed consequences. This viewpoint holds that discipline is not about the student involved, but rather about the rule that has been broken. Participants for whom *Q* Model 2 is at least a partial reflection of viewpoint

would suggest that the consistent approach to discipline offered in this model assures fairness to both students and teachers.

Whereas *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 seemingly hold opposing viewpoints on discipline as either relationship-based or rules-based, *Q* Model 3 distinguishes itself as a viewpoint that conjoins discipline with academic considerations. Participants for whom *Q* Model 3 is at least a partial reflection not only hold views that academic consequences should be given for behavioral incidents, but that grades could be used to try to improve behavior. *Q* Model 3 does support some elements of relationships and understanding, but those who hold this viewpoint would refer students to administration (and likely out of the room) when any behavior causes a disruption to the teacher and the learning experiences in the classroom.

Research Question 2:

Relative Prevalence of Each of the Identified Shared Viewpoints Within the Study Sample

The second research question inquires about the relative prevalence of each of the shared viewpoints discovered in the study. The three *Q* models that this study revealed at least partially describe the viewpoints of almost all (69 or 97.2%) of the 71 participants in this study. It is critical to note, however, that the relative prevalence of each of the three *Q* models below only reflects the prevalence of viewpoints within this study's sample of participating high school classroom teachers and that the prevalence of the models in other person samples or in the larger population might well be different. As discussed in Chapter III, the value of *Q* methodology is in the ability to provide distinct qualitative interpretations to generate empirically-grounded hypotheses and not to generalizing to a larger population of persons (i.e., teachers in the current study).

Relative Prevalence of *Q* Model 1 Within the Study Sample

Q Model 1, Student Discipline as a Humanistic, Individualized Experience Centered on the Teacher-Student Relationship and Separate From Academic Progress, explains 28.9% of the statements variance and is shared uniquely by 30 (42.3%) of the participants. *Q Model 1* represents at least the partial viewpoints of an additional 18.3% (13) of the respondents in the study sample. As such, *Q Model 1* represents at least partial viewpoints of 60.6% (43) of the respondents in the study.

Relative Prevalence of *Q Model 2* Within the Study Sample

Q Model 2, Student Discipline and Justice as a Rule-Based System, Separate From Academic Progress, That Must be Consistent and Without Consideration for Individual Students or Relationships, explains 17.3% of the statements variance and is shared uniquely by 26.8% (19) of the participants. *Q Model 2* represents at least partial viewpoints of an additional 14.1% (10) of the respondents in the study sample. *Q Model 2* therefore represents at least the partial viewpoint of 40.8% (29) of the respondents in the study.

Relative Prevalence of *Q Model 3* Within the Study Sample

Q Model 3, Student Discipline and Justice as Connected to Academics and Humanistic, and Needing Change From the Traditional Model, explains 7.1% of the statements variance and is shared uniquely by 7.0% (5) of the participants. Further, *Q Model 3* represents at least the partial viewpoint of an additional 9.9% (7) of the respondents in the study sample. Thus, *Q Model 3* represents at least the partial viewpoint of 16.9% (12) of the respondents in the study.

Research Question 3:

Key Similarities and Differences in the Shared Viewpoints

The third research question asks how the viewpoints (i.e., *Q models*) discovered in the study compare to one another. This comparison can be based on consideration of the *Q*

statements which most distinguish one model from another (and the valence of those statements across all models), on the statements which appear to reflect some degree of consensus across multiple models, and on statements that were revealed to be non-salient across all the models.

Identifying distinguishing statements for each of the models provides further understanding on the specific statements that separate the viewpoints reflected in the three models. In order to identify distinguishing statements, maximum difference (i.e., Max Diff.) was calculated to reflect the greatest difference in *Q* scores among models for each statement. The nine-column (-4 to +4) sorting template used in this study would allow for a potential Max Diff. = 8, which would indicate a sharp contrast and the greatest distinction in the *Q* scores for a given statement across the models. The calculation of maximum difference, therefore, is useful for understanding the *Q* statements that most distinguish the shared viewpoints (i.e., the *Q* models) of high school classroom teachers on student discipline and justice. Table 4.5 shows a comparison of the three *Q* models organized by distinguishing statements sorted in descending order of maximum difference.

Table 4.5

Distinguishing Statements Across All Q Models Sorted by Maximum Difference in Q Scores

Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Valence	Max Diff.	Theme	Statement
36	2.32	0.69	-4.93	2.65	7.25	CO	Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences.
31	-2.04	-2.43	4.75	3.07	7.18	CO	Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.
41	1.73	-4.13	2.93	2.93	7.06	PR	Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions.
28	3.25	1.21	-3.15	2.53	6.39	PU	School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice.
29	-4.06	0.94	2.18	2.39	6.24	CO	Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome.
48	-1.06	4.58	-1.48	2.38	6.06	TR	Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines.
16	-1.23	2.38	-3.64	2.42	6.03	CO	Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense.
47	2.33	-1.98	-3.56	2.62	5.89	CO	Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely.
34	-3.86	-1.32	1.69	2.29	5.55	PU	The best discipline systems keep problem students out of classrooms.
35	2.67	-2.83	-1.43	2.31	5.49	RS	Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good.
24	1.63	-3.82	0.61	2.02	5.45	PR	Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than rules.
15	-0.87	3.23	-1.62	1.91	4.85	RS	Discipline should never be a matter of negotiation with the student.

40	0.32	-4.50	0.35	1.72	4.85	BK	Sometimes it's appropriate to consider gender in disciplinary choices.
1	1.34	-2.18	2.14	1.89	4.32	PR	Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents.
39	1.78	-1.34	-2.46	1.86	4.24	PR	Disciplinary consequences shouldn't interfere with family obligations.
23	-2.45	1.30	1.24	1.66	3.75	RS	Restorative justice too often rewards students with behavior problems.
26	-0.77	2.04	-1.34	1.38	3.38	CO	Having students write an apology for poor behavior just doesn't work.
32	-1.98	0.73	1.39	1.37	3.37	RS	Restorative practices should only be used for first infractions.
44	4.43	1.49	1.09	2.34	3.34	PU	The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people.
21	-3.27	-0.01	-0.17	1.15	3.26	CO	Many discipline issues should be handled by police instead of schools.
19	-1.84	1.39	-0.83	1.35	3.23	TR	Students will only change misbehavior if given tough punishments.
4	2.50	0.72	-0.70	1.31	3.21	CO	I believe that corporal punishment is just morally unacceptable.
30	0.97	-1.05	-2.09	1.37	3.06	BK	ADHD students require entirely different disciplinary procedures.
25	0.51	3.46	2.75	2.24	2.95	PU	The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools.
37	0.57	3.52	2.50	2.20	2.95	TR	Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities.
17	-1.83	-0.18	-3.05	1.69	2.87	TR	I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline.

33	1.55	-1.30	1.47	1.44	2.85	RS	Peer mediation is an effective solution to many discipline problems.
5	0.72	0.89	3.55	1.72	2.84	PR	I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline.
7	2.19	-0.53	1.74	1.49	2.73	PR	Student discipline should focus more on the long term than short term.
18	-0.49	2.03	1.52	1.34	2.52	CO	Not enough happens to students when they are removed from my class.
42	3.75	2.02	1.31	2.36	2.44	PR	Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.
12	0.21	-2.20	0.17	0.86	2.41	BK	Most discipline problems can be explained by socio-economic status.
14	-1.50	0.79	-0.31	0.87	2.29	PU	Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.
38	-0.83	1.29	-0.52	0.88	2.13	RS	Certification programs shouldn't over-promote restorative practices.
45	-2.95	-3.67	-1.63	2.75	2.05	PU	The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.
3	-0.34	1.54	1.66	1.18	2.00	CO	Violent infractions should always be referred to law enforcement.
27	1.34	0.36	-0.26	0.65	1.60	CO	In-school suspensions solve student discipline problems very rarely.
22	1.16	0.73	2.27	1.39	1.55	PR	Teachers should always be involved in disciplinary decision making.
13	-2.01	-0.52	-0.98	1.17	1.49	TR	It's unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues.
43	2.36	1.03	2.33	1.91	1.33	RS	Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome.

10	0.12	-1.20	-0.28	0.53	1.32	PR	Teachers who were problem students are better at student discipline.
11	2.19	1.33	0.87	1.46	1.32	PR	Positive reinforcement should be part of school discipline processes.
46	-2.55	-1.85	-1.43	1.94	1.12	CO	Detention is the most successful way to eliminate problem behavior.
8	-0.70	-0.01	-1.11	0.61	1.10	RS	Restorative justice is only appropriate for very minor offenses.
6	-1.06	-0.01	-0.96	0.68	1.05	RS	Restorative justice approaches make schools and teachers look weak.
20	-2.18	-1.38	-1.73	1.76	0.80	CO	Out-of-school suspension is the only way to change very bad behaviors.
2	-0.87	-0.27	-0.17	0.44	0.70	RS	I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.
9	-1.22	-1.02	-0.71	0.98	0.51	TR	I believe in the old adage "spare the rod and spoil the child."

Note. Max diff. indicates the maximum difference in the Q scores of an item in the statement sample between Q models. Valence reflects the mean absolute value of the Q scores for a given statement across the three models. The key to the themes is available in Table 4.2. Green highlighting indicates positive salience ($Q \geq 2.00$), yellow indicates negative salience ($Q \leq -2.00$) and a white background indicates non-salient statements ($-2.00 < Q < 2.00$).

For the purpose of this study, I operationally defined distinguishing statements as those statements with $\text{Max Diff.} \geq 5.00$ based on my own judgment. Using this criterion for classifying distinguishing statements in this study, 11 Q statements have been identified as the most distinguishing among the models. The model viewpoints and those views that distinguish themselves across the models are further discussed below.

In order to further understand to what extent the three models are distinguished from each other, Red Owl (personal communication, January 12, 2019) conceptualized and created a new statistic for Q studies, which he labeled valence. That measure was designed to identify the importance given to a statement across all models by calculating the mean of the absolute values (the magnitude of the score regardless of the sign) of all Q scores for a given statement. This supplemental statistic allows for a better understanding of distinguishing statements in that it clarifies the relative importance given to specific statements (i.e., views) across the Q model (i.e., viewpoints).

For the purpose of this study, I defined high-valence statements as those statements with $\text{Valence} \geq 2.25$ based on my judgment. Table 4.6 displays high-valence statements and highlights those high-valence statement which also have a high maximum difference.

Table 4.6

High-Valence Statements

Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Valence	Max Diff.	Theme	Statement
31	-2.04	-2.43	4.75	3.07	7.18	CO	Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.
41	1.73	-4.13	2.93	2.93	7.06	PR	Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions.
45	-2.95	-3.67	-1.63	2.75	2.05	PU	The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.
36	2.32	0.69	-4.93	2.65	7.25	CO	Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences.
47	2.33	-1.98	-3.56	2.62	5.89	CO	Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely.
28	3.25	1.21	-3.15	2.53	6.39	PU	School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice.
16	-1.23	2.38	-3.64	2.42	6.03	CO	Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense.
29	-4.06	0.94	2.18	2.39	6.24	CO	Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome.
48	-1.06	4.58	-1.48	2.38	6.06	TR	Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines.
42	3.75	2.02	1.31	2.36	2.44	PR	Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.
44	4.43	1.49	1.09	2.34	3.34	PU	The best discipline systems recognize the value of students as people.

35	2.67	-2.83	-1.43	2.31	5.49	RS	Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good.
34	-3.86	-1.32	1.69	2.29	5.55	PU	The best discipline systems keep problem students out of classrooms.

Note. Valence is the mean of the absolute value of all Q scores for a given statement. Max diff. = Maximum difference in the scores of an item in the statement sample between Q models. Statements with valence and max diff. in bold indicate those that manifest high-valence and also are deemed to be distinguishing statements. The key to the themes is available in Table 4.2. Green highlighting indicates positive salience ($Q \geq 2.00$), yellow indicates negative salience ($Q \leq -2.00$) and a white background indicates non-salient statements ($-2.00 < Q < 2.00$).

An examination of consensus statements across the three models is useful for identifying views about which there is general agreement (or at least a lack of substantial disagreement) across models. For the purpose of this study, I determined that consensus across viewpoints exists when either (a) $Q \geq 2.00$ in at least two models and $|Q| < 2.00$ in any third model where Q is not ≥ 2.00 , or (b) $Q \leq -2.00$ in at least two models and $|Q| < 2.00$ in any third model where Q is not ≤ -2.00 . Essentially, these criteria hold that a statement reflects consensus across models when at least two models agree in the same direction at a salient level and where any third model that does not agree in that same direction is non-salient. Table 4.7 displays the consensus statements identified in this study.

Table 4.7

Consensus Statements

Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Valence	Max Diff.	Theme	Statement
25	0.51	3.46	2.75	2.24	2.95	PU	The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools.
37	0.57	3.52	2.50	2.20	2.95	TR	Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities.
42	3.75	2.02	1.31	2.36	2.44	PR	Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior.
43	2.36	1.03	2.33	1.91	1.33	RS	Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome.
45	-2.95	-3.67	-1.63	2.75	2.05	PU	The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones.

Note. Consensus statements are defined as those statements with general agreement or lack of a substantial disagreement across models. Max diff. = maximum difference. The key to the themes is available in Table 4.2. Green highlighting indicates positive salience ($Q \geq 2.00$), yellow indicates negative salience ($Q \leq -2.00$) and a white background indicates non-salient statements ($-2.00 < Q < 2.00$).

The key similarities and differences in the *Q* models, as demonstrated by distinguishing statements and consensus, are discussed below for each model.

Q Model 1. *Q* Model 1 positions student discipline and justice as a humanistic, individualized experience centered on the teacher-student relationship that is separate from academic progress. Statement 28 (*School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice*), statement 29 (*Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome*), and statement 35 (*Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good*) distinguish *Q* Model 1 as the viewpoint opposed to any large-scale exclusionary techniques or those approaches (such as zero tolerance) that typically lead to that exclusion. Further, *Q* Model 1 is distinguished as the model viewpoint most opposed to any small-scale exclusionary approaches, such as removal from the classroom as exemplified in statement 34 (*The best discipline systems keep problem students out of the classroom*), and statement 47 (*Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely*). The views represented in these five distinguishing statements clarify *Q* Model 1 as the viewpoint centered on the teacher-student relationship in which all attempts are made to keep students in the room without the need for administration. The valence of each of these five statements is greater than the established criterion for this study (valence ≥ 2.25), indicating the importance given each of these statements across all three models.

Q Model 1 is further distinguished among the models in its opposition to any connection of discipline to academics and grades. The views of statement 36 (*Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences*) and statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors*) support this distinction. *Q* Model 1 very clearly establishes discipline and academics as separate components of the classroom. The valence of

these two statements is above the established criterion (valence ≥ 2.25), indicating the importance that was placed on each of these statements across the three model viewpoints.

It is important to caution, however, that the views expressed in statements 36 and statement 31 should not be regarded as synonymous. Statement 31 expresses the view that teachers can use grades to improve behavior and this distinguishes the viewpoint of *Q* Model 1 among the models as this use of grades could be positioned as against the humanistic nature of discipline. Participants for whom *Q* Model 1 is at least a partial reflection tend to see relationships as the motivation for students to behave appropriately, and any use of grades would be counter to that view.

Statement 36, however, does not speak to grades as an influence on behavior, but rather the presence of academic consequences for poor behavior. *Q* Model 1 distinguishes itself among the other models in the view that academic consequences should not be employed in matters of discipline. It can be suggested that this further distinguishes the humanistic viewpoint of *Q* Model 1 in that any measures of academic progress must be held separate from the behavior of a child and that the conjoining of the two would not be a fair evaluation of a child.

As discussed, statement 34 (*The best discipline systems keep problem students out of the classroom*) seems to support the more humanistic viewpoint of *Q* Model 1 in that for most teachers for whom it was at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint, it can be assumed that all attempts would be made to keep students in the class. Any suggestion of exclusionary discipline would not be considered the “best” system of discipline for *Q* Model 1. It is important to consider, again, how statements can be interpreted differently among the participants. Although the above interpretation of statement 34 supports the humanistic viewpoint of *Q* Model 1, it is useful to explore alternative interpretations with special attention on the use of the word “best” in

the statement. It could be that *Q* Model 2 and the viewpoint of a rules-based system would argue that the “best” system is one of pre-established rules and consequences and that the exclusion of students (i.e., keeping problem students out of the classroom) may or may not be part of this system. Likewise, participants for whom *Q* Model 2 reflects at least a partial viewpoint might disagree with the label of “problem” student in that a rules-based system does not distinguish disciplinary incidents by students but, rather, by the acts. Similarly, *Q* Model 3, with a viewpoint characterized by discipline connected to academics, may argue that the “best” system of discipline would focus on the ability for the class to function and learning to occur, whether or not this includes removing students from the classroom

Despite these distinguishing elements of *Q* Model 1, there are areas of consensus between *Q* Model 1 and the other two model viewpoints. There is general agreement between *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 on the need to avoid labeling students as “good” or “bad” and in the need to identify the reason for student misbehavior. The different interpretations of these statements associated with these views, however, may account for this consensus and need to be addressed.

There is general consensus between *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 on statement 45 (*The real goal of discipline is to separate bad kids from good ones*). This would suggest the consensus viewpoint of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 that discipline is not about any particular type of student or the separation of any students from other students. Although the consensus in this case is important to note, the interpretation of this statement may actually distinguish these models further. The humanistic viewpoint expressed in *Q* Model 1 would be opposed to any characterization of “good” or “bad” students. *Q* Model 1 would hold that not only should all students be treated as people, but also that any separation or exclusion would be counter to the role of discipline. *Q* Model 2 may or may not be opposed to the exclusionary nature of

discipline expressed in statement 45, but rather may disagree with the characterization of “good” or “bad” students as it relates to discipline. For the participants of *Q* Model 2 and the shared viewpoint of discipline as rules-based, there are no “good” or “bad” students, but rather there are just instances of behavior that is against the rules and must be addressed.

Further, there is consensus between *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 on statement 42 (*Discipline processes must address the reasons for student misbehavior*). This would suggest that both models want some form of understanding to be connected with the discipline process. Again, the interpretation of the statement among the models deserves consideration. It could be expected that for the participants for whom *Q* Model 1 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint, this refers to the humanistic element of discipline and that any examination of a behavioral incident would be incomplete without exploring the background of a student and any events or circumstances prior to the incident. For the participants for whom *Q* Model 2 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint, the interpretation of this statement may be more specific in that the process of discipline must address the rule broken (i.e., the reason) in order to identify the issue and what the subsequent consequence should be.

Q Model 1 and *Q* Model 3 share a consensus viewpoint on the humanistic approach of connecting student discipline to the greater community. As demonstrated in statement 43 (*Community service should be used more often as a disciplinary outcome*), it can be suggested that the humanistic approach of both *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3 identify a community role of discipline, both in terms of repairing the wrong that may have occurred and in developing a greater connection and understanding of community for the wrongdoer.

***Q* Model 2.** *Q* Model 2 positions student discipline and justice as a rules-based system, separate from academic progress, that must be consistent and administered without regard to

individual students or relationships. Statement 48 (*Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines*), statement 35 (*Zero tolerance in student discipline usually does more harm than good*), and statement 16 (*Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense*) distinguish *Q* Model 2 in terms of both maximum difference (Max Diff. > 5.00) and valence (valence > 2.25) as a viewpoint for whom participants see little gray area in discipline. Rather than the humanistic elements of both *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3, *Q* Model 2 is distinguished among the models as the viewpoint that seeks consistency and fairness through established rules and consequences, not through a deeper understanding of individual students or relationships.

This cause and effect approach to discipline distinguished in *Q* Model 2 is further demonstrated with statement 24 (*Discipline problems should be handled with the heart more than the rules*), statement 41 (*Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions*), and statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors*). *Q* Model 2 positions fairness in discipline as something that occurs when there is no influence of outside factors, but rather just a response to whatever misbehavior has occurred. Any connection between teacher and student, any parental input, or even the use of grades in discipline could be seen, for the participants for whom *Q* Model 2 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint, as counter to that consistency.

In addition to the consensus described above between *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 1, there are some elements of consensus between *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 3 in the areas of safety and consequences. Statement 25 (*The ultimate goal of student discipline is to maintain safe schools*) is suggestive of the need to keep everyone safe and secure within the school building. Although this ultimate goal of student safety is shared between the models, there may be different

interpretations of what safety looks like in the school and classrooms. Participants for whom *Q* Model 2 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint may define safety as it relates to the functioning of the entire school facility and the need for rules and consequences to satisfy this goal. Safety, for *Q* Model 2, could be directly a result of the rules of the school. Participants for whom *Q* Model 3 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint, however, may define safety through the lens of learning in the classroom. As *Q* Model 3 distinguishes itself among the models as one in which discipline is directly connected to academics, safety may be related to the ability for learning to occur in the classroom. For *Q* Model 3, safety may not be as much about the rules and consequences of the school, but rather on the ability of the teacher to teach and the student to learn in a safe environment.

Q Model 2 and *Q* Model 3 also reflect consensus on statement 37 (*Discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities*) suggesting a shared viewpoint related to the appropriateness of consequences that occur after the school day. The interpretation of this statement through the lens of the viewpoints of the models, however, is again important to consider when considering consensus. Participants for whom *Q* Model 2 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint might see the loss of sports or extra-curricular activities as a logical consequence for a given rule. This interpretation would fit with the greater viewpoint of discipline being driven by rules and consequences. Participants for whom *Q* Model 3 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint might position this differently. For these participants, it can be suggested that discipline should affect student eligibility for sports or activities so as to assure that the utmost importance is placed on academics and the classroom.

***Q* Model 3.** *Q* Model 3 positions student discipline and justice as connected to academics and humanistic values, and as suggesting the need for change from the traditional disciplinary

approaches. The viewpoint of *Q* Model 3 is further distinguished among models through both statement 36 (*Student discipline should never be handled with academic consequences*), and statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors*). These distinguishing statements suggest that participants for whom *Q* Model 3 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint see discipline as a means to assure that teaching and learning occurs in the classroom, and that the conjoining of discipline with academics supports that goal.

In addition to the viewpoint of academic progress as connected to discipline, *Q* Model 3 is also distinguished in the support of exclusionary techniques in discipline as shown through the maximum difference and valence of statement 28 (*School discipline systems should be different from criminal justice*), statement 29 (*Expulsion should be employed more often as a disciplinary outcome*), and statement 47 (*Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely*). As might be expected with the academic-focused nature of this viewpoint, the participants for whom *Q* Model 3 is at least a partial reflection would incorporate exclusionary techniques as to assure the smooth delivery of instruction in the classroom.

There is a humanistic approach distinguished in *Q* Model 3 that suggests discipline should not be based on set consequences for behavioral incidents, but rather should be open to discussion, interpretation, and other influences. Statement 41 (*Parents should usually be involved in student disciplinary decisions*) and statement 16 (*Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense*) distinguish the viewpoint of *Q* Model 3 as humanistic through both the maximum difference and valence especially when considered with that of the rules-based approach of *Q* Model 2.

Consensus between *Q* Model 3 and the other models is discussed in the previous sections of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2. Consensus between *Q* Model 3 and *Q* Model 1 is found in the

humanistic approach to discipline as related to consequences for behavior. Consensus between Q Model 3 and Q Model 2 is found in the ultimate goal of student safety and in the use of disciplinary consequences that occur after the school day.

Q Statements that are Salient Across All Models

It is also useful to examine those statements that were determined to be salient ($|Q| < 2.00$) across all models, regardless of positive ($Q \geq 2.00$) or negative ($Q \leq -2.00$) Q scores. Table 4.8 displays the Q statement found to be salient across all three model viewpoints.

Table 4.8

Statements Salient Across All Models

Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Valence	Max Diff.	Theme	Statement
31	-2.04	-2.43	4.75	3.07	7.18	CO	Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors.

Note. Statements salient across all models are defined as those with $|Q| \geq 2.00$. Max Diff. = maximum difference. The theme CO indicates consequence of behavior.

Of the 48 statements in the *Q* sort, only one was salient across all three models. Statement 31 (*Teachers should sometimes use grades to improve students' behaviors*) was negatively-scored in *Q* Model 1 (-2.04) and *Q* Model 2 (-2.43) and positively-scored in *Q* Model 3 (4.75). As described previously in this chapter, this further demonstrates the distinguishing nature of the connection between academics and grades as expressed in the viewpoint in *Q* Model 3.

It is important to consider why 97.9% (47) of the statements were not salient in at least one of the models. One explanation for this is that the view of discipline held by classroom teachers is complex and nuanced. The subjectivity of discipline was one factor in the selection of *Q* methodology for the basis of this research and this finding suggests that many teachers establish views of discipline based on personal experiences, individual workplaces, or background. Further, the lack of salient statements across all models may be an indication of the conflict that teachers have with discipline both internally and with other teachers. Specifically, this may suggest that although teachers hold certain views about student discipline and justice, they may find it difficult in demonstrating those views in actual practice. This contrast between philosophical values and practice may be an ongoing struggle for teachers and may explain the lack of salient statements across all models.

Non-salient Statements

It is also important to identify those statements about student discipline and justice that had been identified previously as important in the research literature, but which were not found to be salient in any of the *Q* models in this study. Table 4.9 displays the non-salient statements in this study.

Table 4.9

Non-Salient Statements

Item	Q1	Q2	Q3	Valence	Max Diff.	Theme	Statement
32	-1.98	0.73	1.39	1.37	3.37	RS	Restorative practices should only be used for first infractions.
19	-1.84	1.39	-0.83	1.35	3.23	TR	Students will only change misbehavior if given tough punishments.
33	1.55	-1.30	1.47	1.44	2.85	RS	Peer mediation is an effective solution to many discipline problems.
14	-1.50	0.79	-0.31	0.87	2.29	PU	Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.
38	-0.83	1.29	-0.52	0.88	2.13	RS	Certification programs shouldn't over-promote restorative practices.
3	-0.34	1.54	1.66	1.18	2.00	CO	Violent infractions should always be referred to law enforcement.
27	1.34	0.36	-0.26	0.65	1.60	CO	In-school suspensions solve student discipline problems very rarely.
10	0.12	-1.20	-0.28	0.53	1.32	PR	Teachers who were problem students are better at student discipline.
8	-0.70	-0.01	-1.11	0.61	1.10	RS	Restorative justice is only appropriate for very minor offenses.
6	-1.06	-0.01	-0.96	0.68	1.05	RS	Restorative justice approaches make schools and teachers look weak.
2	-0.87	-0.27	-0.17	0.44	0.70	RS	I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.

9	-1.22	-1.02	-0.71	0.98	0.51	TR	I believe in the old adage "spare the rod and spoil the child."
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Note. Non-salient statements are defined as those with $-2.00 < Q < 2.00$ for any model. Max Diff. = maximum difference. The key to the themes is shown in Table 4.2.

Of the 12 non-salient statements, six (50%) were thematically categorized as restorative in nature. As the 48-statement *Q* sort had 10 (20.8%) statements thematically organized as restorative, this suggests that 60% (6) of these statements were not found to be salient in any of the *Q* models. Of the four statements thematically organized as restorative and with salience in one or more of the models, only statement 23 (*Restorative justice too often rewards students with behavior problems*) utilized the actual term “restorative justice” within the statement.

Based on sorting patterns and narrative analysis, it is likely that a full understanding of restorative justice concepts and practice either varies among teachers or many teachers categorize restorative justice with about the same effectiveness of other approaches to discipline. Although some participants may hold the view that restorative justice is too “soft” on discipline or allows students to “get away” with poor behavior, this may be a greater indication of the relative uncertainty that exists among teachers on restorative justice. As suggested in the literature (Guckenburg et al., 2015; Mayworm et al., 2016; McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al., 2008), any implementation of restorative justice must begin with an assessment of the understanding of teachers, targeted professional development and a long-term commitment to its success. The non-salience of statements in this study connected to restorative justice is reflective of this need.

Research Question 4:

Selected Background and Demographic Factors Associated with Each of the Identified Shared Viewpoints

Research question 4 addresses the extent to which covariate factors of the study participants are associated with particular models. The covariates for this study included years of full-time teaching experience, participants' subject area, view of student discipline in

participants' school, and the participants' view of restorative justice. Table 3.2 in Chapter III provides a complete description of these covariates and how they characterize the teachers in the person sample for this study.

Demographic Characteristics Describing Key Participants Associated With Each Factor

This section presents demographic and background statistics of participants who have the highest positive loadings at or above the interpretive factor loading criterion on each *Q* factor and, as a result, are associated with the corresponding *Q* models. Two participants in this study did not have factor loadings that satisfied the interpretive criterion in any of the models.

Q Model 1. *Q Model 1 (Student Discipline and Justice as a Humanistic, Individualized Experience Centered on the Teacher-Student Relationship and Separate From Academic Progress)* is the single-best reflection of the viewpoint of 38 (53.5%) of the participants in this study. Of the participants whose viewpoints are best reflected by *Q Model 1*, the mean classroom years teaching experience is 16.9 years with a median of 16.5 years, a maximum of 31 years, and a minimum of 4 years teaching experience. In regard to the subject area of these participants, 39.5% teach in English Language Arts, Social Studies or World Languages; 15.8% teach in Mathematics, Sciences, or Business; 5.3% teach in Physical Education, Music, or Art, and 39.5% teach in Special Education, ENL (English as a New Language), or are Academic Intervention Service teachers.

The majority of participants (55.3%) for whom the single best model is *Q Model 1* reported discipline in their school as about the same as in most other schools with 26.3% reporting disciplinary problems as fewer than most schools, 2.7% reporting no serious discipline problems, and 15.8% reporting more disciplinary problems than in most schools. Of these 38 participants for whom Factor 1 is the single best reflection of the viewpoint, the majority

(60.5%) positioned restorative justice as somewhat effective, with an additional 18.4% viewing restorative justice as very effective. The remaining participants saw restorative justice about as effective as other disciplinary approaches (5.3%) or mostly not effective (15.8%). No participants with *Q* Model 1 as the single best reflection of the viewpoint positioned restorative justice as not effective at all or harmful.

Q Model 1 at least partially reflects the viewpoints of 60.6% (43) participants in the study sample. The mean teaching experience of these participants was 16.6 years with a median of 16 years teaching, a maximum of 31 years, and a minimum of 4 years teaching experience. In regard to subject area of these participants, 46.5% are English Language Arts, Social Studies or World Languages; 34.9% are teachers of Special Education, ENL, or Academic Intervention Service teachers; 14.0% are Mathematics, Sciences, or Business teachers; and 4.7% are Physical Education, Music, or Art teachers.

The majority of participants (58.1%) for whom *Q* Model 1 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint reported about the same degree of disciplinary problems as most schools, with 23.3% reporting some disciplinary problems but fewer than most schools, 2.3% reporting no serious disciplinary problems, and 16.3% reporting more disciplinary problems than most other schools. In regard to the effectiveness of restorative justice, 74.4% of those for whom *Q* Model 1 is at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint positioned restorative justice as at least somewhat effective (55.8%) or very effective (18.6%). Seven (16.3%) participants whose views were at least partially reflected in Factor 1 saw restorative justice as mostly not effective with an additional 9.3% positioning restorative justice as about as effective as other approaches. No participants with *Q* Model 1 as at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint positioned restorative justice as not effective at all or harmful.

Q Model 2. *Q Model 2 (Student Discipline and Justice as a Rules-Based System, Separate From Academic Progress, That Must be Consistent and Administered Without Regard to Individual Students or Relationships)* is the single best reflection of the shared views, beliefs, and experiences of 25 participants. Of these participants, the mean classroom years teaching experience was 14.4 years with a median of 14.0 years teaching, a maximum of 29.0 years teaching, and a minimum of 3.0 years teaching experience. In regard to subject area of these participants, 48% are English Language Arts, Social Studies or World Languages; 40% are Mathematics, Sciences, or Business; 4.0% are Physical Education, Music, or Art; and 8.0% are Special Education, ENL, or Academic Intervention Service teachers.

In regard to the discipline status of the participating teachers' schools, 48.0% of the participants for whom *Q Model 2* is the single best reflection of the viewpoint reported about the same degree of disciplinary problems as in most other schools; 36.0% reported some disciplinary problems but fewer than most other schools; 12.0% reported more disciplinary problems than most other schools; and 4.0% reported very serious disciplinary problems. Of the 25 participants for whom *Q Model 2* is the single best reflection of the viewpoint, 48.0% saw restorative justice as about as effective as other approaches; 32% positioned restorative justice as mostly not effective; 8.0% as somewhat effective; and 4.0% as very effective. Of these 25 participants, 8.0% categorized restorative justice as not effective at all or harmful.

Q Model 2 at least partially reflects the viewpoint of 29 (40.8%) participants in the study sample. The mean teaching experience of these 29 participants was 15.2 years with a median of 15 years, a maximum of 30 years, and a minimum of 3 years teaching experience. In regard to subject area of these participants, 48.3% are teachers of English Language Arts Social Studies, or World Languages; 34.5% are teachers of Mathematics, Sciences, or Business; 10.3% are

Physical Education, Music, or Art teachers; and 6.9% are teachers of Special Education, ENL, or Academic Intervention Service teachers.

In reporting the discipline status of their schools, 48.3% of those participants for whom *Q* Model 2 at least partially reflects the viewpoint reported about the same degree of disciplinary problems; 37.9% reported some disciplinary problems, but fewer than most schools; 10.3% reported more serious disciplinary problems than in most schools; and 3.5% reported very serious disciplinary problems. In reporting the effectiveness of restorative justice, 34.5% of the participants whose views are at least partially reflected in *Q* Model 2 positioned restorative justice as not effective at all or harmful (6.9%) or mostly not effective (34.5%) with an additional 12 participants (42.2%) identifying restorative justice as about effective as other approaches. Only 17.2% participants with at least a partially reflected view in *Q* Model 2 saw restorative justice as somewhat effective or very effective.

Q Model 3. *Q* Model 3 (*Student Discipline and Justice as Connected to Academics and Humanistic, and Needing Change From the Traditional Model*) is the single best reflection of the shared views, beliefs, and experiences of six of the participants in this study. Of these participants, the mean classroom years teaching experience is 14.8 years with a median of 15 years teaching, a maximum of 25 years teaching, and a minimum of 3 years teaching experience. In regard to subject area of these participants, 50.0% are Special Education ENL, or Academic Intervention Service teachers; 33.3% are teachers of Mathematics, Sciences, or Business; and 16.7% are teachers of English Language Arts, Social Studies, or World Languages. There are no teachers of Physical Education, Music, or Art for whom *Q* Model 3 is the single best reflection. Half of these participants (50.0%) categorized their school as having some disciplinary problems but fewer than most schools; with an additional 33.3% reporting about the same degree of

disciplinary problems as most schools; and 16.7% reporting more disciplinary problems than in most schools. Of these six participants for whom *Q* Model 3 is the single best reflection of the viewpoint, 67% positioned restorative justice as somewhat effective; 17% as about as effective; and 17% as mostly not effective. No participants with *Q* Model 3 as the single best reflection of the viewpoint positioned restorative justice as not effective at all or harmful.

Q Model 3 at least partially reflects the viewpoint of 16.9% (12) participants in the study sample. The mean teaching experience of these participants was 13.8 years teaching with a median of 14.5 years, a maximum of 25.0 years, and a minimum of 3.0 years teaching experience. The majority of these participants (58.3%) are Special Education, ENL, or Academic Intervention Service teachers; with 33.3% identified as Mathematics, Sciences, or Business teachers; and 8.3% teachers of English Language Arts, Social Studies, or World Languages. There were no Physical Education, Music, or Art teachers for whom *Q* Model 3 was at least a partial reflection of the viewpoint.

In regard to the discipline status of their schools, 50.0% of those participants for whom *Q* Model 3 at least partially reflects the viewpoint reported some disciplinary problems, but fewer than most schools; 25.0% as about the same degree of disciplinary problems; and 25.0% as more disciplinary problems than in most schools. No participants reported very serious disciplinary problems. In reporting the effectiveness of restorative justice, 75.0% of the participants for whom *Q* Model 3 at least partially reflects the viewpoint see restorative justice as somewhat or very effective with 2 (16.67%) of the participants seeing restorative justice as about as effective as other approaches. Only 8.3% (1) participant saw restorative justice as mostly not effective.

Hybrid Viewpoint *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2. A hybrid of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 at least partially reflects the viewpoint of eight participants in the study sample. Of these

participants, the mean classroom years teaching experience is 17.3 years with a median of 15.0 years teaching, a maximum of 30.0 years teaching, and a minimum of 8.0 years teaching experience. In regard to subject area of these participants, 75% are English Language Arts, Social Studies, or World Languages teachers and 25% are teachers of Physical Education, Music, or Art. The majority of these participants (75.0%) reported about the same degree of disciplinary problems as most schools, with one participant (12.5%) reporting some disciplinary problems, but fewer than most schools, and one participant (12.5%) reporting more disciplinary problems than in most schools. Of the eight participants for whom a hybrid of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 at least partially reflect the viewpoint of the participant, 37.5% positioned restorative justice as somewhat effective; 25% as mostly not effective; 25% as about as effective as other approaches; and 12.5% as very effective.

Hybrid Viewpoint *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3. A hybrid of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3 at least partially reflects the viewpoint of 5 participants in the study sample. Of these participants, the mean and median classroom years teaching experience is 14.0 years with a maximum of 21 years teaching and a minimum of 4 years teaching experience. In regard to subject area of these participants, 80% teach Special Education, ENL, or are Academic Intervention Service teachers, and 20% are Mathematics, Sciences, or Business teachers. Of those participants for whom a hybrid of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3 at least partially reflects the viewpoint, 40% reported some disciplinary problems, but fewer than in most schools; 40% reported more disciplinary problems than in most schools; and 20% reported about the same degree of disciplinary problems as most schools. In regard to the effectiveness of restorative justice, 80% believe restorative justice to be somewhat effective and 20% believe restorative justice to be very effective.

Hybrid Viewpoint *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 3. A hybrid of *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 3 at least partially reflects the viewpoint of two participants in the study sample with one having seven years teaching experience and the other having 15 years teaching experience. One participant was an English Language Arts, Social Studies, or World Languages teacher and the other was a Mathematics, Sciences, or Business teacher. Both participants for whom the hybrid of *Q* Model 2 and *Q* Model 3 at least partially reflect the viewpoint categorized their schools as having some disciplinary problems, but fewer than in most schools. In viewing restorative justice, one participant positioned it as mostly not effective and the other categorized it as about as effective as other approaches to discipline.

Qualitative Analysis of Narrative Insights From the Survey

An analysis of the narrative responses was conducted to provide further understanding of high school classroom teachers' views on student discipline and justice. The primary theme that emerged from this review was the suggestion among teachers that discipline needed to be changed within the individual schools of the participants or within the entire school system. Although statement 17 (*I see no good reason to change traditional approaches to discipline*) did not meet the cut-off criteria for valence (valence = 1.69) and only achieved salience ($Q = -3.05$) in *Q* Model 3, the narrative responses from participants repeatedly identified problematic approaches to discipline and offered suggestions on what and how it could be done differently. Additionally, this call for change was found in either appeals for progressive models ("I wish we incorporated alternative methods such as mediation, peer mediation, and other more positive training practices") or in the desire to return to a previous approach ("... because these things are no longer taught in school") in regard to punitive consequences.

The next section of this chapter identifies the two primary concerns in regard to change as consistency and fairness for all students and consideration for the voice of teachers.

Consistency and Fairness for all Students. Within the theme of change was the call from participants for more consistency and fairness to all students. The need for consistency and fairness was expressed in the *Q* sort through statement 16 (*Every student should get the same punishment for the same offense*). This statement had positive salience in *Q* Model 2 ($Q = 2.38$) and negative salience in *Q* Model 3 ($Q = -3.64$). The valence of statement 16 is 2.42 with a maximum difference among models of 6.03.

It is important to note that the meaning and intent of this need for consistency varies among the narrative response of the participants. For some, consistency and fairness would be achieved by assuring that all students received the same consequences for behavioral infractions. One participant wrote, “students are given different punishments based on their relationships with administrators or deans which is unfair” and another expressed, “students receive different punishments for the very same infractions.”

There is an expanded intent that may be associated with statement 16 that is revealed in a review of the narrative responses. Several participants expressed a need for consistency and fairness as it related to the dynamic between those students with repeated behavioral infractions versus those students that repeatedly demonstrated appropriate behavior. This level of fairness was not as much about having one set of guidelines and consequences as it was about schools providing too many opportunities for those students labeled as problematic. One participant wrote, “The only thing it [implementation of Positive Behavior] does is reward students that are constantly misbehaving the one time they do something appropriately.” Similar narrative responses included a comment from another participant who wrote, “I have noticed that repeat

offenders are given many exceptions and concessions while typically 'good' kids are held to the letter of the law" and another that expressed, "sometimes there has to be justice for the students doing the right thing."

Consideration for the Voice of Teachers. Some of the narrative responses also expressed an appeal to policymakers and administrators to listen to the input of teachers in considering changes in student discipline processes. This viewpoint was reflected in the *Q* sort with statement 5 (*I wish administrators listened more to teachers about discipline*). This statement has positive salience ($Q = 3.55$) within *Q* Model 3, a valence of 1.72, and a maximum difference of 2.84.

Overall, this appeal to listen to teachers was found throughout the narrative responses as many began with statements such as, "I wish," "I want," "we should," or "we need" expressing an insight that deserved and needed to be heard. More specific statements such as, "We are also not given the opportunity to be part of the discipline process" and "I want to see more teacher input and training in this area" further demonstrated a request for more voice of teachers in the development of discipline policy.

Chapter Synthesis

Taken together, the three *Q* models of shared viewpoints and those ideas that emerged in the narrative comments provide a complex, nuanced, multidimensional, and conflicted view of teachers' views about student discipline and justice in high schools. In general, there appear to be three distinct approaches to discipline as relationship-based, rules-based, or academic-based. However, the findings suggest teachers' beliefs about student discipline and justice may be conflicted, not only in comparison to other teachers, but also internally for individual teachers in terms of their own policy and practice.

Whereas *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2 seem to suggest a contrasting viewpoint of student discipline as either relationship-based or rules-based, *Q* Model 3 shares elements of the first two models except for a distinguishing view on the use of grades and academics as part of discipline. For the participants in this study, the hybrid viewpoints that emerged demonstrate this internal conflict. These hybrid viewpoints may come as a result of those participants that may conceptually believe in the importance of treating students as individuals and approaching behavioral incidents through the formation of meaningful relationships, but whose actual practice may hint at more exclusionary or traditional techniques. Further, it may be that all teachers hold a certain approach to discipline for low-level behavioral incidents, but that viewpoint shifts as the behavioral incidents become either more frequent or higher level infractions.

In Chapter V, I offer my conclusions from the findings of this chapter and suggest the implications that I see for school policy and practice as well as the theory and practice of teacher certification programs.

CHAPTER V

CONCLUSIONS AND IMPLICATIONS FOR RESEARCH, THEORY, POLICY, AND PRACTICE

This study sought to understand teachers' perceptions of student discipline and justice in an effort to determine how systems of discipline could best be designed and implemented to assure effectiveness, consistency, and equality. Leaders in school policy and government continue to debate concepts of effective discipline, including those punitive or restorative in nature, against the backdrop of current school safety concerns. Much of this conversation, however, is without regard for the voices of teachers, the frontline experts in the classrooms. My goal, therefore, was to identify models of shared viewpoints about student discipline from the perspectives of high school classroom teachers. I believe that the findings of this study can serve to inform both current policy and practice, as well as work to develop future research in the area of student discipline and justice.

In Chapter IV, I reported the empirical results and analysis of the evidence found using *Q* Methodology. In that chapter, I identified three models of shared viewpoints and presented descriptive statistics showing how the background characteristics of the participants are associated with each of the viewpoints. Throughout the previous chapters, it was important to avoid any subjective interpretations influenced by my personal judgments. In this final chapter, I present the implications of my findings based on my own subjective judgment and previous experience as both a classroom teacher and as a school administrator. The views that I express in this chapter are grounded in the background and context of Chapter I, the literature examined in Chapter II, the methods described in Chapter III, and the empirical findings of Chapter IV, but the views in this chapter focus on my personal conclusions drawn from the entirety of the study.

Although my interpretations in this chapter are made through the lens of the empirical findings of the study, other scholars may disagree with the implications and conclusions that I offer here. Alternative or additional perspectives could be suggested, but I believe the views I offer in this chapter are consistent with previous findings from the literature and with the empirical evidence of the current study.

The chapter begins with a synthesis of the views discovered in the *Q* models presented in Chapter IV. The viewpoints reflected in the three models are briefly examined through the lens of the history of schools in the United States in order to identify patterns that emerge throughout the time periods. The mirroring of the three models against a historic background allows for specific conclusions to be drawn about teaching and the role of teachers over the past three hundred years within the context of this study.

After this synthesis and historical comparison, the chapter transitions to implications of the shared viewpoints for both the profession of teaching and for the teachers themselves. Implications for both restorative justice and zero tolerance are provided. This final chapter ends with my conclusions on the shared viewpoints of school discipline and justice as well as my suggestions for future research.

Synthesis of Classroom Teachers' Views of Student Discipline and Justice

This study developed an empirically grounded framework that suggests that high school classroom teachers hold three distinct shared viewpoints about student discipline and justice. The three *Q* models that were revealed include: *Q* Model 1: *Student Discipline and Justice as a Humanistic, Individualized Experience Centered on the Teacher-Student Relationship and Separate From Academic Progress*; *Q* Model 2: *Student Discipline and Justice as a Rules-Based System, Separate From Academic Progress, That Must be Consistent and Administered Without*

Regard to Individual Students or Relationships; and Q Model 3: Student Discipline and Justice as Connected to Academics and Humanistic, and Needing Change From the Traditional Model.

Understanding the Q Model Viewpoints Through the Lens of the History of Schools

In order to understand the implications of these models for the teaching profession, it is helpful to briefly examine the viewpoints of these models within the context of the history of schools in the United States. In the first chapter, I established that the approaches to school discipline in the United States have tended to reflect the goals of specific time periods. This assertion can be further extended to clarify the predominant viewpoints of discipline from each era as well. Throughout this history, it is possible to identify elements of each of the three models based on either the perceived educational goal of the time period or within the context of existing national issues or concerns. Although I recognize the individuality of all teachers and the subsequent disciplinary approaches that could be held by each, I focus on the general perception of the time periods.

Q Model 1 and Character Development. Q Model 1 positions student discipline and justice as a humanistic experience centered on the teacher-student relationship. The earliest forms of education in this country were established as a means to stabilize society and for the moral development of children. The academic goals of education were secondary to this character development and they were pursued mostly for the purpose of reading the Bible. To this end, teachers were typically chosen for the role based on character, not so much intellect or ability to teach (Spring, 2001). Discipline was focused on the correction of children for the purposes of moral development. The early forms of discipline, although punitive and harsh, were primarily connected with the relationships formed not only between teacher and student, but also between the teacher and the entire family.

Similar to this approach, the viewpoint in *Q* Model 1 suggests that student discipline and justice are best formed through the development of relationships and that teachers utilize these relationships to guide discipline. Although the punitive, often violent, responses to student misbehavior in history would be counter to the humanistic nature of *Q* Model 1, it is important to note that there was vocal opposition to the use of corporal punishment from both educational and political leaders of the time. Both Noah Webster and Thomas Jefferson, among others, opposed the use of corporal punishment as counter to the character development of children and, instead, supported strong relationships between teachers and students (Cabell, 1856; Pulliam & Van Patten, 1995).

The earliest models of both Charity Schools and Common Schools were based on establishing strong relationships and connections between students and teachers. Horace Mann, the predominant figure behind Common Schools, believed that schools were the key to stability in the government and harmony among society. Similar to the arguments of Webster and Jefferson, Mann held a strong disdain for the use of corporal punishment and, instead, stressed the need for improved relationships and connections between teachers and students. Mann believed that competent teachers would not need to use corporal punishment, but could utilize relationships and connections with students as a form of inherent discipline (Mann, 1844).

Ironically, it was the rise of Common Schools and the increases in student enrollment that negated the relationship-based approach upon which these schools were created. As the number of students in schools grew, a societal shift occurred that removed the family-centered approach of teaching and discipline in place of one that was more formal and standardized (Altenbaugh, 2003). Parents grew concerned that these schools were lacking a previous personal knowledge of the student as well as their knowledge of the teacher. Further, the responsibility for student

discipline shifted from classroom teachers to school principals due to increases in both enrollment and the call for efficiency in classrooms.

As public education grew in the United States, the relationship-based approach to student discipline, suggested by the viewpoint of *Q* Model 1, diminished as the demand for better academic results increased. Although still present, the role of the teacher in the moral and character development of students took a secondary position to that of the teacher as facilitator of academic content. This shift created a conflicted view for teachers on their role in student discipline and the implications for this conflicted view are further discussed in the next section.

***Q* Model 2 and the Rules-Based Ideology.** *Q* Model 2 positions student discipline and justice as a rules-based system that should be administered without regard for individual relationships. An increased call for efficiency and academic achievement in schools has occurred throughout United States history as a reactive response to the gains of other countries. In several instances over the past 300 years, educational policy has sought to develop methods to regulate and standardize what goes on in the classroom in order to improve the learning of students. The viewpoint of *Q* Model 2 suggests an approach that streamlines a teacher's role in addressing behavioral infractions. By eliminating the subjective elements of relationships or students' background, *Q* Model 2 seeks academic efficiency and consistency for all, even if the results of this rules-driven approach have been anything but consistent. Policies of zero tolerance have unfairly targeted students of color in both the type of discipline referral given and with the overall number of suspensions (Castillo, 2014; Epstein, 2014; Heitzeg, 2009; Losen et al., 2015; Skiba, 2014).

The Puritan-era Charity Schools were grounded in the belief that the development of strong relationships between teacher and student was paramount in the development of children.

However, as the number of students increased, the Lancaster-Model of Charity Schools emerged in the 1800s and removed this relationship-based approach. These schools featured classrooms of approximately 100 students and approached education with a factory-style model of circulating supervisors (older students) and strict discipline for any infraction against the rules of the class (Altenbaugh, 2003; Jeynes, 2007; Spring, 2001).

It is my assertion that increases in enrollment and a desire for improved academics became synonymous with the removal of relationships in the classroom and the reliance on a strict adherence to rules and consequences. Although corporal punishment remained a primary form of discipline, new forms of exclusionary discipline were introduced in the late 1800s and the removal of students from the classroom was believed to increase a sense of honor among students to follow the rules (A Statement of the Theory, 1874). Similarly, the viewpoint of *Q* Model 2 suggests a strict adherence to the rules and appropriate consequences for any behavioral incident. This model positions discipline as a reactionary event with the intent of maintaining order, as opposed to discipline as the proactive development of meaningful relationships and an understanding of the student.

Throughout the 20th century, there continued to be reactionary responses to schools and discipline in response to world events. The successful launch of Sputnik in 1957 and the 1983 publication of *A Nation at Risk* created fervor among politicians and the public promoting the view that American schools were falling behind those of other countries. The widely supported myth of the “super predator” created a narrative of deviant youth throughout the 1980s and 1990s. Acts such as No Child Left Behind and Race to the Top pressured teachers to remove those students that could potentially affect test results against which the teachers would be measured. Reactionary responses created more rules, including concepts of zero tolerance, and

further stripped the ability of teachers to consider the student background or individual relationships when disciplining.

I suggest that the rules-driven viewpoint of *Q* Model 2 has taken precedence in schools whenever there has been a call from political leaders, policymakers, or the public for a “back to the basics” approach. Although I believe that the “back to basics” phrase itself is a mischaracterization of U.S. educational history, it has been a solution that seemingly strips teachers of the ability to teach the whole child and, instead, places precedence on law and order in the classroom. The implications of this for teachers as well as how the viewpoint of *Q* Model 2 fits within a greater understanding of student discipline are further discussed later in this chapter.

***Q* Model 3 and the Intersection of Academics and Discipline.** *Q* Model 3 positions student discipline and justice as both connected to academics and humanistic. Further, *Q* Model 3 is the model that emerged with the strongest call for a change to the traditional model of discipline and with a suggestion of more voice for parents in areas of discipline. Although I had anticipated finding elements of the first two models in the early stages of this research, the viewpoint of *Q* Model 3 was a more nuanced position, including a conjoining of academics and discipline, that I had not initially expected.

For the majority of United States educational history, academic achievement and discipline have been viewed as two separate arenas related to the responsibility of teachers. The earliest Puritan classrooms placed academic achievement as secondary to the moral development of the student. As school enrollment grew and a greater emphasis was placed on academic results, the role of discipline was somewhat removed from the teacher and given more to administrators outside of the classroom. Although teachers were still given the authority to

manage those small behavioral incidents in the classroom, most of the decisions about discipline were placed in the hands of people who were not in the classroom every day.

Q Model 3 fully positions student discipline as part of the academic process with both the use of grades as motivation and the potential for academic consequences. It could be suggested that participants who share this viewpoint believe that their role as teacher goes beyond content-area and extends back to the development of the whole child seen in our earliest educational models of Puritan Charity Schools. Further, the increased voice of parents and other stakeholders suggested by *Q* Model 3 can be seen throughout the 1960s and 1970s when student and teacher protest, as well as the re-emergence of parent voice, collectively worked to create policy and change in education. It was the power of these voices and the call for change, similar to that of *Q* Model 3, that shifted the narrative of education during this time.

In some respects, the development of No Child Left Behind in 2002 and Race to the Top in 2009 fostered a negative connection between academics and discipline in the classroom. These acts placed a pressure on teachers to assure that all students were achieving academically (as measured in standardized tests) and led to the removal of students from the classroom who might impact test scores negatively (Allman & Slate, 2011; Scully, 2015). Although the viewpoint of *Q* Model 3 does not support policies of exclusion, the use of grades to motivate student behavior and the use of academic consequences in discipline present challenges that must be considered when looking at this model. The implications of *Q* Model 3 and where it should be positioned within the narrative of student discipline, is further discussed in the next section.

Implications for Teaching

Placed within the context of the history of schools, it is possible to identify the viewpoints of each of the three viewpoints about student discipline and justice that emerged from

this study. As our schools have become ground zero for the reactionary responses of our country, it is not surprising that teachers have conflicting ideas on what discipline looks like in the classroom. It is my belief that much of the discipline style of teachers, like the development of teaching style, was formed through their individual experiences as students and in response to the academic demands placed on them from administration or other policy. A critical difference between a teacher's disciplinary approach and that of an academic approach, however, is the lack of initial training as well as additional development and support offered for approaches to discipline provided by most preservice teaching programs and schools.

Given the subjective nature of discipline, my own parallel experiences as a teacher and administrator, and with an understanding of the shared views of teachers regarding student discipline and justice that were developed in this study, I offer the following implications for teaching.

Reactive to Proactive

As I discussed above, approaches to school and discipline have often been shaped as reactionary responses to current events. Almost all trends in schools and discipline can be traced to perceptions of students at the time. I do not question the need for school policymakers and government administrations to continue to examine and make changes to educational policy, nor do I question a need for a school to develop a consistent school-wide approach to discipline. However, I believe that these policies often lack full development, research, and follow through. Most noticeably, I believe that this lack of research ignores the experiences, thoughts, and ideas of teachers. Disciplinary policies, similar to broader educational policy, has become a revolving door of mandates and acronyms for which teachers feel little connection to what they actually do

in the classroom every day. Teachers almost inherently recognize that many of these policies are fleeting and will be changed by the time they arrive for the first day of school the following year.

The wide-ranging views on discipline held by teachers become further muddled when considering the lack of training provided for discipline in preservice teacher programs. It is an assertion of this study, supported by the literature reviewed in Chapter II, that teachers develop disciplinary approaches primarily based on their own experiences as students, as well as from their early experiences as teachers (Moore & Cooper, 1984; Rimm-Kaufman et al., 2006). As a result of limited training devoted to discipline, teachers early in their career tend to focus more on consequence-based disciplinary techniques as opposed to their more experienced peers (Johnson et al., 1994; Kaya et al., 2010; Moore & Cooper, 1984; Wichter et al., 2008). With such little training and support focused on student discipline, teachers often begin their careers reacting to behavior as opposed to having a proactive plan for the management of students.

In order to reverse this trend of reactive responses that lack development and support, schools are encouraged to become more proactive by both identifying and considering the empirical research on discipline and by seeking the input and ideas of the teachers in the building. Further, both preservice programs and schools need to be willing to commit professional development and training to student discipline, as it is a critical component of the responsibility of teachers. Whereas schools appropriately devote hours upon hours of training and professional development on curriculum and instruction, student discipline often lacks that same commitment. Teachers must see the same commitment to student discipline as is given to academics and understand their role in its application. Although gathering input from teachers will surely present conflicting ideas on how to approach discipline, schools would be better

served to collect teacher perspectives then create an appropriate plan for any training or development that is needed.

The Conflicted Teacher

The empirical evidence presented in Chapter IV suggest that many of the participants of this study feel both internal and external conflict on approaches to student discipline and justice. The hybrid models, specifically the hybrid viewpoint combining some views of *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 2, demonstrate the disconnection that teachers often feel between policy and practice. It is possible that teachers may believe in a relationship-based, humanistic approach to discipline. However, when these same teachers are presented with egregious behavioral incidents or when an infraction is personal or creates safety concerns, they may revert to punitive, exclusionary policies in the classroom. Further, teachers may support the development of relationships with students, but still rely upon or believe in a strict adherence to rules and set consequences when managing the classroom.

In addition to this internal conflict, teachers may disagree with the approaches of other teachers or administrators in the building. As teachers have different experiences and belief systems, it should be expected that they also hold different views on how and why to discipline students. Among the 71 participants in this study, the nuanced views of student discipline offered insight on the multiple perspectives that teachers hold and how these views are revealed in the classroom. Requiring one specific, inflexible approach to discipline may present limitations and tension in a school building. The formation of any particular discipline approach may not merge with the individual beliefs of the teacher expected to practice it in the classroom.

In order to create greater connection between disciplinary policy and teachers, schools are encouraged to develop systems in which teachers' viewpoints on discipline are considered

and that a certain amount of autonomy is allowed in student discipline. It would be a meaningful endeavor for schools to develop systems that identify the beliefs and approaches of its teachers to help inform disciplinary systems and develop professional development needs. This would also help teachers reflect upon their own discipline styles and clarify their individual philosophies. Although identifying the conflicting beliefs of discipline does not help to remove it, identifying the beliefs of teachers is a helpful starting point in developing a school-wide approach to discipline.

The Parallel Role of Teaching and Discipline

The profession of teaching and, more specifically, the role of the teacher have been in constant transition over the past 300 years. Originally charged with the moral development of youth, external pressure and enhanced academic expectations have shifted the role of teacher to one that is defined based on students' content knowledge as measured by report cards and standardized tests. The results of this study demonstrate the questions about the confused role of the teacher in issues of student discipline.

Although I recognize the importance of academic growth and knowledge acquisition, I equally recognize that the role of the teacher and the profession of teaching go well beyond test scores. Much of the reactive measures and internal conflict revealed in this study and written about earlier in this chapter can be connected to the public's vacillating expectations for our teachers. There are many high school teachers who consider their role to be equal parts character development and academic coach. There are others who consider their role to be strictly one of teaching academic content and that any and all discipline issues be left to administration. I am of the belief that teachers should approach their role through the lens of the whole child, fostering both academic growth and character development. However, it is hard to find fault in a teacher

who sees teaching as strictly an academic role, as every current measurement by which teachers are evaluated is contingent upon that academic success of students. The changing role of schools and the perceived responsibilities of a teacher create a fractured view of the part that teachers play in student discipline in schools.

In order to clarify the role of a teacher, it is recommended that school leaders and policymakers recognize that the craft of teaching goes well beyond the scores we see on report cards and standardized tests. We must recognize that many teachers place a great importance on the teacher-student relationship as it relates to the development of youth and their preparation for adult life. Instead of creating legislation and mandates that encourage exclusionary practices and create a distinction between academics and discipline, policymakers may be better served to embrace the multiple roles that teachers play in the classroom and help to foster, not limit, the meaningful connections that teachers create with students. If we can clarify the role that relationships serve in the classroom, and support, not undermine, this critical component with proper funding and accountability, we can help to shift those current issues in student discipline.

Implications for Zero Tolerance

Throughout the early 2000s and continuing to the present, stakeholders and scholars have recognized the problematic nature of zero tolerance. The exclusionary, inflexible policies of zero tolerance have led to a dramatic increase in school suspensions and expulsions. Such policies have been linked to stressful school environments, increases in suspensions and expulsions, racial disparities in discipline, and the existence of a school-to-prison pipeline (Epstein, 2014; Gonzalez, 2015; Rodriguez Ruiz, 2017; Scully, 2015; Wilson, 2014). Despite these findings, many stakeholders still believe that zero tolerance is the answer to our current epidemic of school shootings and school violence.

Both *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3 offer viewpoints opposed to zero tolerance. For these participants, discipline should be a matter of understanding and relationships. *Q* Model 2 supports a positive view of zero tolerance policies. An analysis of the narrative responses in this study suggests that those participants position zero tolerance as a path towards fairness and consistency in discipline. This is one of the misconceptions of zero tolerance that could be eliminated with further training and access to the research on discipline. The pursuit of fairness and consistency is a meaningful endeavor. The use of zero tolerance towards this goal is not.

Based on the voices and views of the teachers who participated in this study, I recommend that schools finally move beyond those concepts of zero tolerance that have unfairly pushed students out of the classroom. In addition to the wrong that these policies create for students, I believe that zero tolerance also limits the flexibility and autonomous nature of teaching. Teachers become limited in addressing discipline issues when considering the straightforward nature of zero tolerance. In much the same way as argued by Horace Mann (1844), I contend that with the proper training and development, discipline becomes a matter of developing and responding to the relationships we have within a school and that the master teacher no longer needs the threat of exclusion or punitive punishment to address classroom behavior.

Implications for Restorative Justice

Restorative justice has been positioned by many prominent voices in education as an effective alternative solution to the failed policies built on zero-tolerance. It is their belief that this approach allows for a more meaningful process centered on repairing the wrong and, equally important, allowing the offender opportunities to reenter the community. Similar to the viewpoint of *Q* Model 1, restorative justice utilizes relationships as a factor to influence behavior

through an increased accountability to an entire community, not simply as a reactive measure to an incident or wrongdoing. Restorative justice, like those views found within *Q* Model 1, focuses on keeping the wrongdoer within the community or making re-entry back to the community as seamless as possible.

Although the terms “restorative justice” and “restorative practices” are often considered interchangeable, I strongly believe that semantics do, in fact, matter when considering student discipline. There are certain elements of restorative justice, as it is originally constituted and designed, that simply cannot be utilized in schools. Much of the empirical literature on restorative justice focuses on the voluntary elements of this system for both victim and offender satisfaction (Calhoun & Pelech, 2010; Latimer et al., 2005; Sherman et al., 2015). By mandating restorative justice in schools, the voluntary elements of restorative justice no longer exist.

Additionally, restorative justice often focuses on the relationships between offender and victim and the process by which balance can be restored. The victim in school discipline is not always clearly defined. Who is the victim when a student cheats on a test? Who is the victim when a student is late to school? Who is the victim when someone vandalizes the hallway? It could be argued that much of school discipline incidents are violations of the entire school community including the administrators, teachers, staff, and students. However, the process of restorative justice in many schools still positions incidents as a violation of the student-teacher or student-administrator relationship. Restorative justice, as McCluskey, Lloyd, Kane et al. (2008) argued, becomes just another reactive approach to behavioral incidents and simply another measure by which schools achieve compliance from the students.

I believe that the empirical results of this study support the premise that schools are better served to identify as “restorative practice” schools as opposed to “restorative justice” schools.

Although it may seem like a minor distinction, I believe it is one of critical importance. The distinction of restorative practices shifts the focus from any particular behavioral incident to one that reflects a whole school culture and school-wide approach to relationships. Both Mirksy (2007) and Teske (2011) have suggested that restorative practices are more suggestive of a relationship-based process of discipline and that restorative justice initiatives struggle as they are often still seen as operating within pockets of schools, such as an individual classroom or the principal's office.

I would suggest that many of the elements of restorative practices have existed for teachers and schools since the earliest Puritan classrooms. An emphasis on the relationship between student and teacher as well as the greater relationship between student and community were some of the earliest fundamental aspects of early education. Underscored in this study, the viewpoints of both *Q* Model 1 and *Q* Model 3 support the humanistic, relationship-based approach of restorative practices. This viewpoint seeks an understanding of behavioral incidents beyond the rule that was broken and identifies the usefulness that relationships have in both preventing and addressing a wrongdoing. To some degree, many teachers already believe and follow elements of restorative practices, but they do so without knowing or using the restorative label.

To that end, it is important that an appropriate amount of time and training be committed to any school considering a restorative practice approach to discipline. As suggested, teachers must have voice in the process and training must be meaningful and ongoing. The results of this study suggest that while many teachers are already utilizing concepts of restorative justice and restorative practices in their classroom, the formalized distinction of being a "restorative" school may create conflict for some teachers. It is important that teachers see this as a school-wide

commitment to the overall school culture and not as yet another mandate or trend on how they need to operate in the classroom.

Conclusions and Suggestions for Future Research

As a former teacher and current school administrator who values the voices and views of teachers, I recognize the inherent difficulties that student discipline can present in a classroom. Although teachers often believe and support the principles of humanistic, relationship-driven discipline, the daily struggles of classroom management can easily cause any teacher to shift to more exclusionary, punitive measures. I believe that virtually all teachers want to create a consistent, fair, and safe environment in which students are able to learn. It is the path towards that environment, however, that is unclear for many.

It is my conclusion that public schools must do more to prepare teachers for the challenges of student discipline and understand the perspectives of teachers in policy development. In much the same way that schools approach curriculum and instruction, more research, professional development, and training must be offered to teachers in order to transition student discipline and justice from a reactionary response to a behavioral incident to a proactive whole-school understanding of community accountability. The voice and experience of the teachers, as the frontline experts on discipline, are critical components of this commitment to development and training.

I believe my study has made a contribution by giving voice to the shared viewpoints that classroom teachers hold about student discipline and justice. I hope that the results of this study will be useful for educational policymakers, school leaders, and teachers as we work together to determine how systems of school discipline should best be designed and implemented to assure effectiveness, consistency, and equality to all. Although this study has not provided final

answers to the school discipline dilemma, it has given voice to the nuanced views that teachers hold about discipline and the importance of considering these views when implementing discipline policies. Although I believe in the future of restorative practices in discipline, I caution against reactionary mandates for these practices in response to the flaws of zero tolerance. No system will succeed without a long-term commitment of research, development, and training.

Future research is needed to further define the role of the teacher and the intersection of academics and student discipline. This study suggests that both teachers' shifting definitions of their role in the classroom, as well as the increased reliance on standardized tests to measure teacher performance, has caused confusion and conflict regarding teachers' understanding of their role in the student discipline process. It would be useful to understand the viewpoints of teachers, parents, and other stakeholders in regard to a teacher's role in the moral development of students. Further, I believe that it is critically important for future research dedicated to the role that preservice programs should have in addressing school discipline. Whereas so much of a teacher's discipline approach is seemingly created through individual experiences, it may be necessary to determine what preservice programs are doing to address student discipline and justice.

This research began as a result of my developing views of student discipline coupled with the current debate between punitive and restorative approaches to discipline. Upon the completion of this research, I recognize that the subjective nature of classroom discipline provides no clear answer on one best method or approach, but that understanding the perspectives of teachers is one clear first step in addressing behavior management. I am

encouraged by this research and it is my hope that through a better understanding of what teachers believe, we can create a better plan for the school discipline dilemma.

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APPENDIX A

Introduction to the Survey and Letter of Informed Consent



Long Island University/LIU Post
College of Education, Information, & Technology
720 Northern Blvd, Brookville, NY 11548

**Introduction to the Survey and
Informed Consent Form for Human Research Subjects**

As a fellow educator and high school principal, I am pleased to invite you to volunteer to participate in a research study entitled *Classroom Teachers' Views of Student Discipline and Justice: An Expert Judgment Study Using Q Technique*. The purpose of this research, which I am conducting for my doctoral dissertation, is to identify, examine, and analyze the views and insights of high school teachers about student discipline and justice in high schools. To be eligible to participate, you must currently be a certified high school teacher teaching in a public school in New York State.

As a participant, you will be asked to read and sort 48 statements about student discipline and justice into a template. The survey will take about 15-20 minutes. You will also be asked to answer four general questions about your professional background, which are not personally identifying and which will only be used to understand the responses from high school teachers with similar backgrounds. There are no known or anticipated risks involved in participating in this study. While there is no direct benefit to you from participating, it is reasonable to expect that this study will provide valuable information for teachers, school leaders, and policy makers and give voice to teachers in decisions about student discipline and justice.

If you agree to participate in this study, your participation will be on an anonymous basis, and you will not be asked for any information that could identify you or your school individually. Your participation in this research will be voluntary, and declining to participate (or discontinuing participation at any point) will not incur any loss of benefits.

If you have any questions about this research, you may contact me, Brendon Mitchell, at Brendon.Mitchell@my.liu.edu or my dissertation chair, Dr. R. H. Red Owl, at Red.Owl@liu.edu. If you have questions concerning your rights as a subject, you may contact the Institutional Review Board Administrator, Dr. Lacey Sischo at (516) 299-3591.

By clicking the "Agree to Participate" button below, you can indicate that you have fully read the above text and have had the opportunity to ask questions about the purposes and procedures of this study. If you choose not to participate, please click the "Decline to Participate" button below or simply close your browser.

Thank you for your consideration and your support of my dissertation research.


Brendon C. Mitchell
Doctoral Candidate and Study Director
Long Island University


Agree to Participate

Decline to Participate

APPENDIX B

Screenshots of Survey







**Welcome to the Survey of
Classroom Teachers' Views About Student
Discipline and Justice**

Please begin by clicking on the "Continue" button.

[Continue](#)





Step 1 of 5

The following 48 statements may or may not reflect your views about student discipline and justice as a public high school teacher.

Please read each statement and place it into one of the three categories based on whether you agree with it MORE than the other statements, LESS than the other statements, or have NO OPINION about it.

You can simply click, drag, drop, or press 1, 2, or 3 on your keyboard to move the statements into one of the three piles.

You can move the cards at any time to make changes.


THIS IS A LOT EASIER THAN IT SOUNDS, SO PLEASE GIVE IT A TRY.


[Continue](#)


LEAST AGREE (#1)


NO OPINION OR NEUTRAL (#2)


MOST AGREE (#3)











Step 2 of 5

Please sort these statements into the template in the way that best describes your views about approaches to student discipline and justice in high schools.

Only part of the statement text will be visible after you move a statement into the template, but you can see the full text statements by hovering the mouse over them.

(The order of boxes in any of the columns does not matter. You can move cards into any of the columns regardless of their original pile or color.)

[Continue](#)

LEAST AGREE

-4	-3

MOST AGREE

+3	+4

LEAST AGREE	NO OPINION OR NEUTRAL	MOST AGREE
	<div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px; margin-bottom: 5px;"> (48) Disciplinary outcomes should be predetermined by published guidelines. </div> <div style="border: 1px solid black; padding: 5px;"> (47) Misbehaviors in class should be referred to administration only rarely. </div>	



LEAST AGREE

MOST AGREE

-4	-3	-2	-1	0	+1	+2	+3	+4
(14) Discipline	(18) Not	(24) Discipline	(40)	(48)	(36) Student	(12) Most	(6)	(2) I don't
(13) It's	(17) I see no	(23)	(39)	(47)	(35) Zero	(11) Positive	(5) I wish	(1) Discipline
	(16) Every	(22) Teachers	(38)	(46) Detention	(34) The best	(10) Teachers	(4) I believe	
	(15) Discipline	(21) Many	(37) Discipline	(45) The real	(32)	(9) I believe in	(3) Violent	
		(20) Out-of-	(33) Peer	(44) The best	(31) Teachers	(8)		
		(19) Students	(30) ADHD	(43)	(29) Expulsion	(7) Student		
			(28) School	(42) Discipline	(27) In-school			
			(26) Having	(41) Parents	(25) The			

Continue



Step 3 of 5

Congratulations! Thank you for sorting all statements into the template. You can now review your decisions and move any statements you wish.

If you like, you can move statements out of their boxes and place them temporarily in any blank area outside the template while you're making final changes.



LEAST AGREE

-4 -3

(14) Discipline must focus on restorative justice
(13) It's unrealistic to expect students to be perfect

(16) Every student should have a chance to be successful

(15) Discipline should never be used as a punishment

(20) Out-of-school suspension is the best way to handle discipline

(19) Students will only learn from their mistakes

Continue

(18) Not enough emphasis on discipline
(23) Restorative justice is the best way to handle discipline
(39) Disciplinary actions are necessary
(47) Misbehaviors should be addressed immediately
(35) Zero tolerance in the classroom is the best way to handle discipline
(11) Positive reinforcement is the best way to handle discipline

(22) Teachers should always use discipline
(38) Certification is the best way to handle discipline
(46) Detention is the most effective way to handle discipline
(34) The best discipline is the one that is most consistent

(45) The real goal of discipline is to teach students how to behave
(32) Restorative justice is the best way to handle discipline
(9) I believe in the old adage "an eye for an eye"

(44) The best discipline is the one that is most consistent
(31) Teachers should use discipline as a last resort
(8) Restorative justice is only for minor infractions

(30) ADHD students should be handled differently
(43) Community service is the best way to handle discipline
(29) Expulsion should be used for serious infractions
(7) Student discipline should be a team effort

(28) School discipline should be a team effort
(42) Discipline processes should be consistent
(27) In-school suspensions are the best way to handle discipline

(26) Having students write essays is the best way to handle discipline
(41) Parents should usually be involved in discipline
(25) The ultimate goal of discipline is to teach students how to behave

MOST AGREE

+3 +4

Restorative justice is the best way to handle discipline
(2) I don't think discipline should be used as a punishment
(5) I wish administrators would focus more on discipline

(4) I believe that corporal punishment is the best way to handle discipline

(3) Violent infractions should always be handled with discipline

**Step 4 of 5**

To give me more insight about the decisions you made about the statements, please briefly explain why you placed the following statements in the *MOST AGREE* and *LEAST AGREE* boxes.

[Continue](#)

(2) I don't think restorative practices would work with my students.


(1) Discipline should focus more on relationships than specific incidents.


LEAST AGREE (-4)

(14) Discipline must focus on protecting others, not helping offenders.

(13) It's unrealistic to think we can change long-standing behavior issues.

[Continue](#)





Step 5 of 5

You're almost done, but I would like to ask you just a few more simple questions, so I can look for views that are shared by survey participants with similar backgrounds.

Please keep in mind that this is an anonymous survey and that neither you nor your school can or will be identified.

[Continue](#)

How many years of full-time teaching experience do you have?

Your Subject Area

In which subject area do you primarily teach?

- ☐ English Language Arts, Social Studies, World Languages
- ☐ Mathematics, Sciences, Business
- ☐ Physical Education, Music, Art
- ☐ Special Education, ENL, Academic Intervention Services

Your View of Student Discipline in Your School

How would you describe student discipline in your school?

- ☐ No serious disciplinary problems at all
- ☐ Some disciplinary problems but fewer than in most other schools
- ☐ About the same degree of disciplinary problems as in most other schools
- ☐ More disciplinary problems than in most other schools
- ☐ Very serious disciplinary problems

**Your Full-Time Teaching Experience**

How many years of full-time teaching experience will you have had by the end of this school year?

Your Subject Area

In which subject area do you primarily teach?

- ☐ English Language Arts, Social Studies, World Languages
- ☐ Mathematics, Sciences, Business
- ☐ Physical Education, Music, Art
- ☐ Special Education, ENL, Academic Intervention Services

Your View of Student Discipline in Your School

How would you describe student discipline in your school?

- ☐ No serious disciplinary problems at all
- ☐ Some disciplinary problems but fewer than in most other schools
- ☐ About the same degree of disciplinary problems as in most other schools
- ☐ More disciplinary problems than in most other schools
- ☐ Very serious disciplinary problems

Your View of Restorative Justice

How effective do you believe restorative justice can be in addressing student discipline in high schools today?

- ☐ Not effective at all or harmful
- ☐ Mostly not effective
- ☐ About as effective as other approaches to discipline
- ☐ Somewhat effective
- ☐ Very effective

Your Other Insights About Student Discipline and Justice (optional)

In the space below, please add any other comments or insights you would like to share with me about approaches to student discipline in high schools today. Your views are important, and I want to make sure you have had the opportunity to express them in your own words.

Continue

99%

Help me!



Submit Data

You've finished the survey. Please submit your data now.

[Submit data](#)



APPENDIX C

TEXT FOR PERSONALIZED EMAILS TO NEW YORK STATE

PUBLIC HIGH SCHOOL PRINCIPALS

(EXCLUDING PRINCIPALS IN NEW YORK CITY DOE)

Dear (Name of High School Principal),

I am a doctoral candidate at Long Island University and I have been a high school principal for the past three years after working for 15 years as an English teacher. My dissertation survey addresses teachers' perceptions of student discipline and justice and seeks participation from current high school teachers in New York State.

I am writing to ask your help in distributing the link to my online, voluntary, anonymous survey, which is available at <http://justice.edsurveys.us>. I would be very grateful if you would share this link with your current high school teachers. The survey takes only about 15-20 minutes and does not ask for any information that could identify specific teachers, their school, or their district. More details about my study are provided in the introduction on the first page of the survey.

Thank you very much for your consideration and for helping me with my dissertation. I will gladly provide any additional information you might request. If you would like to receive an executive summary of my study, please write to me at Brendon.Mitchell@my.liu.edu.

Brendon Mitchell, Doctoral Candidate

Long Island University, LIU Post Campus

* *Note:* No recruitment emails or invitations will be sent to NYC DOE email addresses of principals or teachers.

APPENDIX D

TEXT FOR SOCIAL MEDIA POSTINGS

If you're a Grade 9-12 public school #teacher in New York State, pls take 15-20 mins to let your voice be heard by filling out my #doctoral #dissertation survey on teachers' views on student #discipline & #justice at <http://justice.edsurveys.us>. Thanks for your support. #restorative

APPENDIX E

IRB EXEMPT STATUS

LONG ISLAND UNIVERSITY
UNIVERSITY OFFICE OF SPONSORED RESEARCH
BUSH-BROWN HALL, UNIVERSITY CENTER

NOTICE TO ALL RESEARCHERS:

Please be aware that a protocol violation (e.g., failure to submit a modification for any change) of an IRB approved protocol may result in mandatory remedial education, additional audits, re-consenting subjects, researcher probation, suspension of any research protocol at issue, suspension of additional existing research protocols, invalidation of all research conducted under the research protocol at issue, and further appropriate consequences as determined by the IRB and the Institutional Officer.

TO: Dr. R.H. Red Owl
Brendon Mitchell (Student Investigator)

FROM: Dr. Lacey Sischo, IRB Administrator
LIU Institutional Review Board

DATE: November 28, 2018

PROTOCOL TITLE: Classroom teachers' views of student discipline and justice: An expert judgment study using Q technique

PROTOCOL ID NO: P 18/11-187

REVIEW TYPE: Exempt-Level

ACTION: IRB Exempt Determination/Approval

Your application has been reviewed using the University's Institutional Review Board's (IRB) administrative review process and can be considered to be an EXEMPT methodology/approach as defined in 45 CFR 46.101.b.2:

Research involving the use of educational tests (cognitive, diagnostic, aptitude, achievement), survey procedures, interview procedures or observation of public behavior unless:

- ☐ The information obtained is recorded in such a manner that human subjects can be identified, either directly (e.g. name) or through identifiers linked to the subject (i.e., through ANY code used with the intent of being traced back to the subject.)
- AND**
- ☐ Any disclosure of the human subjects' responses outside the research could reasonably place the subjects at risk of criminal or civil liability or be damaging to the subjects' financial standing, employability, or reputation

Please note: Revisions and amendments to the research activity must be promptly reported to the IRB for review and approval prior to the commencement of the revised protocol. **If the project is amended so that it is no longer considered to be exempt research as per the federal definitions, it will be necessary for the investigators to submit an application for full committee review.**



Verification of Institutional Review Board (IRB) Exempt Determination/Approval

LIU IRB ID: P 18/11-187

Project Title: Classroom teachers' views of student discipline and justice: An expert judgment study using Q technique

Signature: _____
Lacey Sischo

Name/Title: Lacey Sischo, PhD, IRB Administrator